THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE 14–15 GROUP

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A RECORD OF AN EXPERIMENT IN
A SENIOR SCHOOL

By

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TO

M., G. AND P.

PREFACE

FROM September, 1933, as Headmaster of a Non-Selective Senior Boys' School in an industrial area in the North Midlands, I have been privileged to provide for the conditions arising from the adoption by the local education authority of a bye-law anticipating the provisions of the Education (1936) Act, by which all children will be compelled to remain in attendance at school until the end of the term in which they become fifteen, unless they become exempt from further attendance by obtaining approved employment. As these conditions came into being, it became increasingly evident that they could not adequately be met by extending the school course already existing or by adding subjects or sections of subjects to a course already complete, for the group fluctuated considerably both in numbers and personnel. To meet the circumstances, an organisation providing for the functioning of a free group was devised. As described hereafter, each boy in the free group was free, within as wide limits as the school's resources could permit, to choose how his time should be spent. It was not the adoption of the Dalton plan in the sense that assignments were given to be worked out by each boy in his own time,

but a scheme was deliberately planned to allow each boy to choose his activities as freely as possible. Thus it was hoped to obtain the boys' point of view respecting the needs of the fourteen to fifteen group. This approach to this problem, and to the problem of senior school work in general, seemed to the writer to be long overdue and to be of first importance since the child himself is chiefly concerned in them. The free group experiment, therefore, was devised:

(1) To find an organisation to meet the conditions arising in school consequent upon the circumstances provided by exemptions.

(2) To discover the educational needs of the fourteen to fifteen group.

(3) To lead to a re-examination of the principles underlying senior school work.

The book is an account of this experiment and the result. It is based upon observation, extending in individual cases from periods of a few weeks to more than a year, of the reactions of more than 300 boys, to conditions of freedom in their choice of activity. It is offered as a record in the hope that it will be of interest and helpful to all concerned in senior school work. Although the experiment has been carried out in a senior boys' school, it is believed that the conclusions arrived at are the premises of all education. I hope, therefore, that they will be found applicable to some of the problems of all schools. The use of the

masculine throughout the text it is hoped will be understood as coming most readily to the pen in virtue of my work, and not as indicative of my belief in the superior importance of the male sex.

I wish to record my thanks to W. H. Young, Esq., M.A. (late H.M.I. for the county of Derbyshire) and to H. G. Stead, Esq., Ph.D. (chief Education Officer for the Borough of Chesterfield), for the freedom to experiment in school. I acknowledge, with gratitude, the debt I owe to Dr. Stead for the stimulation of his help and encouragement, and to my staff (including Mr. K. Portman, B.A., until lately a member of the staff) for their loyal and cheerful co-operation, in the work we are trying to do. For their help in the preparation of the book I express my thanks to Mr. George Pledger, M.A., for his careful reading of the type-script and his keenly critical suggestions, and to Miss Kathleen White for her secretarial services.

A. GREENOUGH.

William Rhodes Modern School,
Chesterfield.
February, 1938.

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FOREWORD

It is with very real pleasure and much gratitude that I undertake the task of writing a foreword to Mr. Greenough's book. It is a pleasure, for I know how well worthy of consideration are the views he expresses, and I do it with gratitude because Mr. Greenough is a colleague in whose insight, power of criticism and zeal for the *best* for children I owe very much.

Two reasons make the appearance of this record significant at the present time. In the first place, the last ten years have seen the coming of "Hadowism" into the educational system of this country. Hailed at first with an enthusiasm which too often lost any power of criticism, conceived by many as a physical process only and as consisting entirely of the rebuilding of schools, the provision of equipment and the reclassification of scholars, and commonly accepted in all its phases as an educational 'revelation', it seemed to promise a straight and easy path to an educational New Jerusalem. Now a more chastened spirit is abroad. It is felt by many that the first rosy dawn is not developing into the perfect day. And many are inquiring why this is so.

An obvious answer is that certain of the assumptions

on which Hadowism was based have not been fulfilled. The School Leaving Age is not sixteen for all scholars; all post-primary schools are *not* ' Secondary '—neither in status, nor in standards of staffing, nor in accommodation and equipment. But true as all this is, there is a deeper reason. At bottom any reorganisation of an educational system involves an examination of the principles and technique which underlie the actual process. And with the exception of a few more or less isolated investigations this has not been done during the process of what is commonly called the reorganisation of education in this country. Traditions and customs last long after their usefulness has vanished. When they are criticised, feelings are mobilised in their defence and this in turn prevents an intelligent discussion of their value. Yet if an educational system is to be developed which shall be an expression of the democratic ideal and also the chief defence of that ideal, the democratic answer to the dictator's method of indoctrination must be found. This volume is a constructive effort to educate citizens for a democracy.

In the second place, the new School Attendance Act is now on the Statute Book and will come into force in a year's time. It raises the School Leaving Age to 15, but it gives the right to exemptions in certain cases and it will confront teachers in senior schools with many problems. Mr. Greenough has worked for many years in an area which has had a bye-law similar in its provisions to those of the new

Act. He has, therefore, had experience of the difficulties which will arise. And I must express my deep appreciation of the thought and courage he has brought to their solution. In this book he places his experience, and his reflections on that experience, at the disposal of his colleagues. They will find in it a sincere record of one man's educational odyssey. And I can commend it to them as well worthy of their careful consideration. Mr. Greenough is not a writer with a universal cure for educational ills. He is a competent practitioner, who has wrestled with his own doubts and difficulties, and who is still moving on the boundaries of the educational horizon. And all those who prefer to have experience rather than opinion as the basis of the method in which the new age group in our schools is to be treated, will study with care and attention what Mr. Greenough has to say.

These, then, are the reasons why I can commend this record so heartily to all educationists. It is an attempt at *real* educational reconstruction and it furnishes guidance and supplies suggestions as to how the new age group about to be retained in the schools can be handled. I commend the book to all those who are concerned with the whole welfare of children (not merely their physical well-being) and with the maintenance of democracy. Perhaps it will be found that these two ends are fundamentally but one.

H. G. STEAD

SECTION I

To find an organisation to meet the conditions arising in school consequent upon the circumstances provided by exemptions.

CHAPTER I

AN EXPERIMENT

Exemptions

WHEN this school opened in April 1931, it was a well-established condition of organisation that the child would leave school at the end of the term in which he became fourteen. The concentration of seniors in large numbers in a Senior School accentuated the effect of this condition, but it offered no problem other than that consequent upon the depletion of the third and fourth year groups in four stages throughout the year —one at the end of each term. To meet this condition, courses were organised to reach some degree of finality at the end of each term of the third and fourth year. Thus an attempt was made to carry loyally into practice the policy favoured by the Board of Education, when, by law, the child's leaving at fourteen became leaving at the end of the term in which he became fourteen, presumably so that boys should leave school at some final stage in their studies. Gradually this condition became modified by the fact that some boys, waiting until they obtained work, voluntarily continued in attendance at school after the end of the term

in which they became fourteen. The number attending voluntarily was not great enough to demand any drastic changes in organisation, and the condition was met by arrangements which permitted some freedom and specialisation in individual cases; but it was sufficient to throw some doubt on the importance of having finality in the various courses at the end of each term. The functioning of the Bye-Law, however, brought into the school entirely new conditions. Here was a group, the larger part of which not only drifted away throughout a term, but which, on account of boys returning to school, fluctuated both in numbers and personnel. For example, during the year from September 1935 to the end of July 1936, 144 boys left the school, of whom forty-six left at the end of a term, and ninety-eight during term time. Moreover, of these 144 'leavers', twenty-seven, having lost or given up their approved employment, returned to school for periods of attendance varying from a few days in some cases to periods of several weeks in other cases. As examples typical of the period of fluctuation, the following statistics are submitted with reference to six cases re-admitted during a period of nine weeks.

Boy A. Left school for one week (for temporary work), back at school for six weeks and then final exemption.

Boy B. At work for eight weeks (prospects not as expected), back at school and still in attendance at the end of the period.

Boy C. At work for two weeks (employer not satis-

fied), back at school for two weeks and then final exemption.

Boy D. Having been in employment, returned to school, after four weeks left again; after three weeks in the job (didn't like it), back at school and in attendance at the end of the period.

Boy E. At work three weeks (wages not sufficient), back at school for five weeks and then final exemption.

Boy F. At work for one week, back at school for six weeks and then final exemption.

During this particular period twenty-nine boys left school.

In these circumstances it was clear that 'a course' was futile. However much we could believe in the efficacy of courses in any other part of the school, in this case they could not be justified. The virtue of any course, we believed, lay in the fact that it connected up with previous work and proceeded logically to its close. This condition was fulfilled on paper but the boys were not there to follow it. Some missed the beginning, others the middle, and few hoped (or feared) to stay until the end. For this reason alone, some change in organisation was imperative, and in these conditions the Free Group Organisation was evolved, so that, as far as possible, each boy in this Age Group could take up his own activities following individual lines or sharing in group activities as circumstances made it possible.

Other reasons, however, pointed to the need for some organisation other than that associated with a class

going through a prescribed course. In the first place the group included chiefly two distinct types, differing so greatly that it appeared impossible to devise a common course which could be satisfactory for both. Staying on at school was the kind of boy who, by virtue of special aptitudes or special opportunity, would not take any job that came along but was waiting for some specific job. Usually he represented the type we know as *A*. On the other hand we had remaining at school the kind of boy who, by reason of physical, intellectual, or other disability, was unable to get any job at all. He represented the type we know as *C*. The boy of normal standards, willing and able to take any job that came along, left very soon. The group, therefore, comprised a very few *B* boys, a fair proportion of *A* boys, and a large proportion of *C* boys. The difficulties of prescribing a course suitable for such a group were appreciable, especially to a mind attuned to the three-stream school.

Secondly, the boy returning to school, having lost or given up his employment, presented a special problem. The aspects of this important problem are fully discussed in a later chapter. It was clear, however, early in the experience of the new conditions that the organisation which required a boy taking up a place in class system with others he had once left behind, would offend his dignity. Inevitably the question arose, why not let him take up some work in which his experience of the world has led him to find some need or interest? He, the boy, alone knows the answer to

this and he, therefore, should have most to say in the choice of his work.

These two facts—the widely differing type of boy constituting the fourteen to fifteen group, and the special needs of boys returning to school with direct experience of the realities of the working world—pointed to the necessity of making any new organisation one which would allow the maximum of choice of activity. The method of doing this is fully described later in this chapter.

In the meantime, it will be profitable, as presenting the background to the problem of the fourteen to fifteen group in school, to note some of the results of the functioning of the Exemption Clause in this school as shown by the statistics during three years of the period concerned. They are representative of conditions in an industrial area showing a steady economic recovery after five or six years of depression.

TABLE I

	1934–35	1935–36	1936–37
Number of boys who left school for employment...	154	144	138
Number who left immediately at the end of the term in which they became 14	51	46	61
Number leaving during term time	93	98	77
Number returning to school during the year having had exemption withdrawn	29	27	17

TABLE II

RECORD OF LEAVING AGES (First Exemption)

Age	1934–35	1935–36	1936–37
14.0	13	25	26
14.1	31	21	31
14.2	30	25	28
14.3	13	17	11
14.4	8	12	12
14.5	9	12	7
14.6	10	11	7
14.7	2	5	5
14.8	5	6	3
14.9	2	1	3
14.10	3	2	0
14.11	0	2	3
15.0	4	2	0
15.1	1	2	0
15.2	0	1	2
15.3 and over	3	0	0

The following statistics indicate the type of employment available in the area, and to some extent indicate the predominant outlook of the boys.

TABLE III

	1934–35	1935–36	1936–37
Shop work	33%	37%	34%
Engineering Trades	22%	24%	26%
Pit work (coal)	16%	14%	12%
Miscellaneous	29%	25%	28%

Shop work includes errand boys. Miscellaneous includes building trades, gardening and farming, office work, warehouse work, transport.

The statistics of leaving under the Exemption Clause may be found to be fairly representative of conditions that will arise in industrial areas, generally in the North.

It may reasonably be assumed also that the attitude shown by parents and boys to the question is typical. In the area, the boy of fourteen is regarded as an economic asset in the home (presumably this age was once thirteen, twelve, etc.) and until exemptions are no longer possible, this attitude will govern the situation and overrule, in most cases, any enthusiasm there may be for prolonged education for its own sake. [" for its own sake " is said advisedly, for, in the majority of cases, education prolonged after the statutory leaving age is expected to yield an economic return. The child is kept at school in the hope that he will ' get on ' in the sense that he will get a better job.] It is suggested that this attitude will be maintained so long as it is necessary to grant exemptions, for it is the relative situation that is the crucial factor. After all, if the boy next door is bringing home a weekly wage of ten shillings or twelve shillings (or even as much as fifteen to sixteen shillings)[1] as a welcome addition to the family income and as a means of some feeling of independence to the boy himself, it is indeed straining to the utmost any belief that further attendance at school is worth while.

The nature and conditions of exemption in this area

[1] The importance of this addition may be emphasised by a comparison with the local adult rate in the same work of 40/- to 53/- per week.

during the three years should be viewed in the light of the fact that the tide of industrial prosperity began to rise during the 1935–36 period and was reaching its flood towards the end of the 1936–37 period. The effect is seen in the greater number of exemptions immediately at the end of the term, during the last year as compared with the other years. It is also seen in the smaller number returning to school, having lost or given up their jobs, it having become relatively easy to find other employment immediately. This change is not indicative of greater stability in maintaining the first jobs. In fact, although a record has not been kept, casual evidence indicates that changes in employment after the first exemption have been certainly as frequent as, and probably more frequent than, during the first year. It may be assumed that the administration of the Exemption Clause as shown by these figures is representative of merely the growing pains of this part of the Act, when leniency has been the deliberate policy. Exemptions have been granted freely, both with respect to the conditions of the approved employment and with respect to the time when the exemption has come into effect. Exemption has been refused only when the work was obviously detrimental to the applicant's physical health (work in rag store, for example) or when the applicant was apparently being flagrantly exploited by the prospective employer (work paid for on a commission basis, for instance). Exemptions have been granted so that boys have left at any time during the term and on any day of the week.

The Board of Education Circular 1457—" Suggestions for Procedure with regard to School Attendance under the Education Act, 1936, Sections 2–7"—outlines a policy to control more rigidly the conditions of exemptions, and to safeguard the policy of end-of-term leaving when the Act is administered with full force. The mode of procedure outlined for the obtaining of exemption if carried out, in particular the form to be completed by the prospective employer, will doubtless prove a ready deterrent upon any lax application for, and granting of, exemptions. With regard to the times when exemptions shall be effective, we read that " the date from which an Employment Certificate is to have effect shall not be a date falling in a school term unless in any particular case, owing to exceptional circumstances, the Authority otherwise determine. This is intended to safeguard the principle that the school term should, so far as possible, be inviolate "

Reference to Circular 1457 cannot be made without some comment on the paragraph describing the " Educational Provision for Children whose Employment ceases before 15 ", where we read that, " If the Employment Certificate ceases to have effect before the child's fifteenth birthday he becomes again liable to the law of school attendance. This does not necessarily mean that he should be required to return to the public elementary school. The advisability of his doing so must depend very much on local circumstances and also on the personality of the child himself. Normally, however, it may be expected that the Authority will

consent to the attendance of the child at an alternative course of instruction for the brief period involved. Where a Junior Instruction Centre exists, this may prove to be the most suitable form of provision. Where, however, there is no Junior Instruction Centre available, and where the child's return to the public Elementary School may, for disciplinary or other reasons, not be desirable, it will be open to the Authority to arrange for his continued education in such other ways as can be rendered effective, e.g. at day or evening classes at some Technical or Evening Institute, which would thus constitute an alternative course." How are we to account for this attitude? What, may we feel disposed to ask, are those conditions which the child is expected to meet in the employment for which exemption has been granted, which will make it 'not desirable' that he should return to the public elementary school; and why, we may ask, is the alternative accommodation suggested, a more suitable provision for his continued education? Conjecture is interesting. It would certainly seem to be the urgent duty of each public Elementary School so to function as to justify the confidence that it can adequately cater for the full educational needs of all children of the fourteen to fifteen group—a confidence which apparently the Board of Education lacks at present.

The Method of the Experiment

The normal organisation of the School is for four 'years' (boys 11–12; 12–13; 13–14; 14–15). According to the ages of the boys on entry (the ages vary from 10.10 to 11.10) and the number of leavers, this allows for three 'streams' in each of the first three years and either one or two groups in the fourth year—usually one group. In the usual case, where there is only one fourth-year group, conditions which make it possible for each boy to have a choice of time-table, are made by taking from the three third-year groups those who are approaching school-leaving age and making two groups of those remaining. In this way one class set of time-table arrangements is made free. For the new group (called the Free Group) consisting of the third-year 'leavers' and the fourth-year fourteen-to-fifteen boys, two class time-tables are thus made available. In effect this is more than the minimum of two masters and two rooms per period, since the staffing ratios exceed one master per group; this is in common, presumably, with the practice in the staffing of modern senior schools generally.[1] It is thus possible to give to each boy in this Free Group a choice for each period from which he can build his own time-table. On this principle, but slightly modified in details of only limited interest, an organisation has been evolved

[1] Actually as the year advances falling numbers in the School make it possible to increase the range of choice further still if desired. In the last chapter a scheme to make the free group organisation a permanent feature of senior school organisation is described.

which has extended the scheme to include a free group of as many as eighty-five boys at the same time. As a detailed example of a time-table a specimen will be found on page 32. This has been used by a group of fifty-two boys of *A*, *B* and *C* types of an age range of 13.9 to 14.10. This time-table also shows the kind of control and restrictions which it has been found advisable, or necessary, to retain. Such controls and restrictions are always reduced to a minimum, and, in the cases of the compulsory two periods written English and three periods Mathematics per week, the work is individual and adjusted to the boys' particular requirements and needs. Each 'period' on the time-table is forty minutes, the sessions being divided thus:

Morning: 9.30–10.10; 10.10–10.50; 10.50–11.0 break; 11.0–11.40; 11.40–12.20.

Afternoon: 2.0–2.40; 2.40–3.20; 3.20–3.30 break; 3.30–4.10.

From 9.0 to 9.30 a.m. the group meets as a 'group' for Scripture after the opening School Assembly for prayers.

Activities, such as geographical excursions, works visits, 'listening-in', swimming, and the like, which are among the Free Group activities, are provided for as occasion and the need demands and are not shown on the time-table. Nor are shown School, House, and other Team Activities in which the boys of this group take an important part.

The letters *E*1, *E*2, and *E*3 refer to different English activities for which there are times set apart for

Literature, Magazine Production, Practice in using Index System, Newspaper Reading and Discussion, Debating and Lecturing, Written work.

Craft includes all branches of Woodwork and Metalwork.

Art includes Drawing, Design, Colour, Bookbinding, and allied light crafts.

Science is practical and includes facilities for making models and apparatus.

Music includes Singing, the use of gramophone records and the Wireless for Concerts and the like.

Dramatics includes all kinds of Dramatic work from Play Readings to Stage Presentations.

P.S. is Private Study with reference and other books available.

Mathematics, in addition to the compulsory Mathematics, covers a wide range, according to the particular 'bent' of the boy. It is almost entirely individual.

Hygiene is a course and is taken by the Physical Training master.

Physical Training includes apparatus work and is graded according to Board of Education recommendations. Remedial emphasis is given by the master.

Games according to the season are organised Football, Cricket, and Swimming, with practice exercise thereon.

Geography is almost entirely individual, and is based on projects. Films are extensively used.

History is largely based on individual projects.

Book-keeping is a special form of arithmetic of accounts.

TRAINING

A FREE GROUP TIME-TABLE

	Morning				Afternoon		
Period.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Day 1	Music E.1	Maths. E.1	Geog. E.1	Hyg. E.1	P.T. Art Sci.	Geog. Art Sci.	Geog. Art Sci.
Day 2	Craft Geog.	Craft Geog.	Craft Geog.	Craft Music	E.3 Art Dra.	Maths. Art Dra.	Maths. Art P.T. (outdoor)
Day 3	E.1 Sci. Bkg.	P.T. Sci. Bkg.	E.3 Sci. Geog.	E.3 Sci. Geog.	Art Sci. E.1	Art Sci. E.2	Art P.S. E.2
Day 4	E.1 P.S. Bkg.	E.1 Hist. Bkg.	← Games → E.2	E.2	Music Art Sci.	P.T. Art Sci.	Maths. Art Sci.
Day 5	Art Sci. Bkg.	Art Sci. Hist.	Art Sci. Hist.	Art Sci Music	Art Dra. Bkg.	Art Dra. Bkg.	Art Choral Sci.
Day 6	Dra. Craft	P.T. Craft	P.S. Craft Music	E.1 Craft	Bkg. Craft ← Machine	E.2 Craft Drawing →	Music Craft
Day 7	← Games → Craft	Craft	Hyg. Craft Maths.	Hyg. Craft Maths.	P.S. Art Craft	Maths. Art Craft	Maths. Art Craft

(See note of explanation of the seven-day time-table.)

1. Each boy must take at least one of the double E.1 (written English) periods and at least three of the Mathematics periods in his "week"

2. The periods bracketed are to be regarded as continuous activities which cannot be divided.

A note of explanation of the seven-day time-table.

Taking a unit other than ten half days as a week, is a device adopted to permit longer consecutive periods for each group in some kind of work. For example, in this School it was first used in 1931 when there were eleven classes in the School, each of which it was desired should use the Craft-room (free time-table conditions were not practised then). To avoid a condition which would demand that some groups should spend less than half a day in the Craft-room, a six-day time-table was made, giving ten classes each half a day and one class a whole day. Later it was found convenient to extend the period to seven days—to accommodate twelve classes—ten at half a day each and two at a day each. Adopted in the first case as a device to meet a special need, it was found that other advantages accrued. For example, boys missing the normal school work for regular periods during the week, for example, boys attending the Swimming Baths during the season, miss the work of those particular occasions on one week in seven, instead of weekly—a fact of importance in any rigid organisation.

In practice the time-table, such as the one shown, is given to each boy in the group a day or so before the holiday preceding the term concerned. It is explained and the general activities proposed under each heading are described. The boy is then required to make out his own time-table some time before the beginning of the next term. It is suggested that he might obtain advice from grown-up relatives, the Headmaster and the Staff, or from other boys who have had some experience in the Free Group. At the beginning of the term, a general survey of the resulting conditions reveals those cases which, for one reason or another, will be unworkable, and in these cases some adjustments are made. The first week may reveal other cases of difficulty and again adjustments are necessary. These changes call for considerable care, for herein lies a weakness which can wreck the scheme. The changes must be made without violating the principle of freedom of choice by the boy, for to offer him a choice of time-table and then to refuse it, is to create a new situation for him bringing a feeling of frustration which would not arise in a system presenting for him no choice. Actually, in practice, the number of unworkable groups that arises is not high, and the adjustments necessary to meet the situation are less difficult to make than to explain, for usually the problem suggests its own solution. The problems, however, can only be solved on the spot, and, for reasons stated, require careful handling. The system then carries on, each boy understanding that he adheres to the time-

table he has chosen until the end of half term, after which provision is made for changes.

The method of work in any particular period depends upon the activity concerned; the boy may be writing, reading, listening, or 'doing' in any of the many forms possible in a modern school, and the particular work in hand may be purely individual or it may be carried out as a contribution to some group activity. Usually the work undertaken follows the project method. Sometimes the project follows through one subject and restricts itself to the subject, as, for example, in Geography, where individual boys have made records such as "Fruit Growing in Britain", "A World Cruise", "Animals of Africa", "Railways of Britain", using for this purpose geography books, pamphlets, reference books, and atlases, and illustrating a written record with diagrams, drawings, and maps. Similarly History has readily lent itself to subject projects carried out by individual boys, for example 'Transport', 'Books', 'Houses'. These projects have been carried out through a collection of pictures stuck in a suitable folio, with explanatory and connecting written notes. In other cases boys, through the system, have carried out individual projects through their entire time-table for a time. A boy with an interest in stamp collecting centred his time-table on this hobby for a term. Through his hobby he 'did' Art, making, lettering, and designing an album; English, in writing for approvals and referring to catalogues; Arithmetic, measuring for his album, and

calculating costs and stamp values; History and Geography, in understanding his stamps. Another boy, keen on model aeroplanes, found his hobby advanced through Craft, where he made parts of his aeroplanes; Science, where he adjusted them for flight; light Craft, where he bound a collection of periodicals dealing with his hobby; and in English he wrote about his model aeroplanes for the *Group Magazine* and he used his Arithmetic in measurements and calculations. In addition to individual projects, of which these are examples out of a wide range, successful group projects have been carried out. A notable example has been the production of a play based on a local historical incident. Before the play was actually staged, apart from the actors themselves, more than thirty boys had taken some active part in its preparation. It involved the use of the local Reference Library for information on costumes, weapons, architectural features; the making of scenery, props and stage furniture; the lighting of the stage and the production of effects. Similarly the production of a form magazine has called for a group effort engaging many boys and covering a wide range of activities, writing articles, printing, typing, preparation and production of cover, and the like.

Although the sytem naturally encourages the development of individual and group projects of the kind described, there is still demand and need for courses to satisfy some requirements. Courses are designed for boys with special needs or special aptitudes

for example, in Machine Drawing, Book-keeping, and Science. In these cases, however, the main subject ultimately becomes a centre of wider activities and as such becomes a project in itself. For example, the boy who 'does' Electricity, reads, makes apparatus, calculates, measures and so forth according to his stage of attainment in the subject.

Thus, following his own time-table along the lines indicated, each boy takes his own way, leaving it if he becomes 'exempt', returning to it if his 'exemption' is withdrawn, or continuing to the end of the term without interruption.

A mixed collection of rough time-table sheets, which were signed up at the end of each period and kept by each boy in the group, has been replaced by a neat notebook (each boy prepares his own book as an Art project) which has provision for a record of time-tables, with any variations or changes, and of any special achievements and remarks. These have proved to be interesting records, and the boys pride themselves on keeping their notebooks complete.

Some Results of the Experiment

As a method of meeting the special conditions of the Fourteen to Fifteen Group in attendance at school under the administration of the provisions of the Education (1936) Act, the Free Group Experiment has justified itself completely. Because the work of each

member of the group is individual, the work of the group as a whole suffers the minimum of interruption by the fluctuation in numbers and personnel, which dislocated severely the work conducted by rigid class methods. It is true that the boy who leaves at short notice leaves school with much of his work unfinished. The system does not offer an immediate solution of this feature of the situation. It has, however, inspired more than a few boys to return to school voluntarily in their own time, as occasion has presented itself, to finish some project commenced and left incomplete. Such cases have been known under the class system, but the increased number returning for this purpose and the general readiness and ease with which it has been done have been remarkable features of this result of the system.

Again, because the work is individual, the differing needs of the *A* and the *C* boy, or for that matter of any boy in the group, are served by this system. The boy of special aptitudes and ability readily finds in the system an opportunity of indulging them. "The Senior School might well allow greater scope for individual aptitudes," Mr. Kenneth Lindsay, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, is reported to have said. (*The Times Supplement*, October 1937.) The system allows much scope for this, at least during the boy's last period of attendance at school. Indeed, each boy, even without marked special ability, finds new zest in his self-chosen activity. It is partly for this reason, and partly because the system allows for free

intermixing of the *A*, *B* and *C* boys, a consideration which is discussed in some detail later, that the differences between the *A*, *B* and *C* boys in the Free Group seem to decrease.

The system also caters well for the boy returning to school. There has been no disciplinary or any other trouble with such a boy returning to the conditions described. His choice of time-table may be coloured by his experiences, or he returns with new zest to interests he previously pursued. He feels no restraints irksome and no loss of dignity which would be associated with taking up a place in a rigid class system carrying on with the work he had once left behind, in which there were gaps and which probably he felt to be unreal and unrelated to his recent experiences and his new outlook. If school can offer anything at all to such a boy he will find it under the system described. His special case will not then require the alternative form of provision described in Circular 1457. His old school will offer all he needs, and moreover, he in turn has a valuable contribution to offer to the life and outlook of the school in view of his association with the workaday world. Viewed from the point of view of these three aspects, the system, as a method of dealing with the special conditions arising from the raising of the School Leaving Age with exemptions, has been entirely successful in practice.

Having been adopted at first rather as an expedient, it has been found to be advantageous in other ways. The new enthusiasm at the top of the School has been

clearly evident. It had, indeed, been one of the disturbing features previously to note some fall away of enthusiasm and keenness in the fourth-year groups. Although the School has always been primarily ' practical ' in character and concerning itself with realities and everyday affairs in its courses and curricula, there always seemed to be some waning of interest in the ' leavers ' group. This has entirely disappeared. Apart from this reawakening of interest and enthusiasm, there is the satisfaction for each boy associated with the responsibility and ' grown-upness ', of having his own time-table, keeping his own records, choosing his own work. This provides a healthy outlet for his growing sense of independence and gives a feeling of adulthood which makes for stability not only in the boy himself (a matter discussed more fully in the next section) but also in the School. Nor is to be neglected the value in its effect on the rest of the boys, of the hope of eventually attaining Free Group status and privileges. It is a wholesome ambition and is felt through the School. It prescribes an end to be achieved and provides a climax to the course.

Apart from these effects as seen in the boys, the presence of the Free Group has created a new interest for parents in the School's work. It has made for fresh enthusiasm and a new approach to some problems of School for the Staff. As a result the School has become more and more boy-centred. Perhaps there are no striking or revolutionary changes as an immediate result, yet here and there, in this or that respect, is the

boundary pushed outwards more and more and with the principles continually in evidence through the activities of the Free Group, they must eventually determine the policy of the whole School.

At this stage it will be profitable to consider some of the objections which have been raised to the scheme.

In doing so, it is inevitable that several matters will be considered which must be reviewed later when the individual needs of the boys in the Fourteen to Fifteen Group are discussed. In this section, however, both in the subsequent and the preceding paragraphs, it is, as far as it is possible to disassociate the two aspects, as criticism of the system as a school organisation, that the matters are discussed rather than as concerning the individual needs of the boys in the group.

" Doesn't the system encourage the boys to dodge their difficulties? " it is asked. It is hard to imagine any boy who can go through his week making no effort in anything; even " dodging work " is an effort, in any case, but considering first the case of a boy such as this. He is usually the boy who has suffered most under a rigid system and he usually flounders about for a time. Ultimately, if the period of transition is carefully handled, in his right group he finds thé school meeting his needs, he is caught up by the system and devotes himself to purposeful activity. The question, however, implies a belief that the average boy will refuse to face his difficulties unless the system relentlessly forces him to do so. It is true that artificially raised difficulties, which to him are meaningless hin-

drances, he will avoid, but difficulties he encounters in a task which is real to him, that is *his* difficulties, he faces cheerfully and boldly. There is no limit to a boy's purposefulness when he is engaged upon a task which is vital to himself. Then his work is a sheer joy. But it is objected, what about the disciplinary value of effort made for effort's sake? The value of this in its salutary effects on character development depends upon the motive force responsible for the effort. If the motive force comes from without, springing either from a taskmaster or originating in the system, be it benevolent or harsh, psychologists are agreed that there is little value in making the effort. The only effort that is of value to the personality is, the one made in response to urge from within. The making of this effort develops strength of character and those qualities which we seek to develop when we speak of the disciplinary value of effort. Effort as the result of force or pressure must make for weakness of character and precisely the opposite of those qualities we value and seek to encourage. In maturity the result is the attitude of the slave mind which responds only to external force or pressure; or it will develop the opposite attitude which rebels against all authority for no other reason than it is authority. This may well be found expressed in forms of anti-social conduct, and may readily lend itself to the support of subversive activities in the life of the community.

Such thoughts as these do not, however, absolve the school from any responsibility in the matter. As a

controlled environment the school's function is clear. It is charged with the duty of maintaining such an atmosphere and such a spirit that each boy is encouraged to face his difficulties, and it is the school's function to provide him with such help and guidance as he needs so that he can overcome them.

"Are not the boys receiving an ill-balanced education?" represents another adverse criticism. This means that the class is not going through a course which has been planned and prepared on paper. This is true, and it is true that a complete record of any single boy's work after, say, six months of working under the Free Group scheme, would appear ill-assorted, ill-balanced and incomplete. One defence is that such is characteristic of the intellectual life of the child. First one thing, then another, has the pre-eminence at any given period of intellectual activity. As with intellectual life, so it is with intellectual growth. The recognition of this apparent disorderliness has long been established as characteristic of intellectual growth or of any other organic growth as shown by Professor Whitehead (*The Aims of Education*) and Professor Nunn (*The New Teaching*, and other publications) who have formulated certain rhythmic laws as being evident in the development. Longer consideration of this rhythm need not concern us further here. It is quoted as recognition of this apparent disorder (though of rhythmic order) of intellectual growth, and therefore as backing for the defence that is being offered against the charge that disorderliness

had taken the place of the order, balance and completeness of a course; and as a reason for believing that the "mix up", as the work might appear on paper when analysed and apportioned into time-table subjects, is not such a mix up in the boy's mind.

To attack, however; is the well-balanced course, which it is suggested should dominate the organisation and arrangements for the group, reflected in the boy's mind by a result any more complete and balanced than that he attains under the conditions of the Free Group Scheme? Is, in fact, the value of a course so assured that its claims can dictate from an unassailable position? For example, what is regarded as fair to expect of any individual boy leaving school in, say, Geography, he having covered the world in a four-year course? Do we expect him to see the whole world as set forth in the well-ordered school scheme? Doubtless it would be agreed that his attainments would be satisfactory if, according to his ability, he knew where and how to obtain further information he might want, if he knew certain everyday facts, if he had gained some acquaintance with the mode of thought characteristic of the subject, and if he left school with some enthusiasm for further pursuit of the subject. Success in these respects would be acceptable, as justification as far as measurable results are concerned, for the time and effort spent on the course as a course.

We do not look for an ordered, complete and logical review of the subject in the mind of each child

when he leaves. We are strangely happy in the feeling that the teacher and the class have jointly gone through the course, as though the teacher and class will go through life as an undivided group. Actually, throughout this process of "taking the course", each individual boy has followed consistently a process of accepting and rejecting (this is apart from the fact that on occasions he may have been physically absent as he certainly has been mentally absent), as the course has, or has not, satisfied his needs. This statement is not depreciating the work of the teacher. It is being assumed that the teaching has been as "thorough" and efficient as it can be under a rigid system of working through a course. A critical examination of the results raises much doubt concerning the wisdom of allowing the demands of a course, the chief claims of which rest upon an appearance of balance and completeness, to determine the method of educating any child. As a corollary, the justification of ignoring the claim of the course for the Fourteen to Fifteen Group, in their special circumstances of attendance, seems clearly established.

Within the range of the experiment some attempt has been made to examine the justification for the fear that deviation from the normal school practice would result in a sacrifice of attainment in the normal school subjects. Normally each boy would take all the subjects, and the amount of time he would spend on each would be apportioned according to its importance presumably as seen by those who impose the curriculum.

In the conditions of the Free Group Scheme, some boys omit entirely some subjects, and the amount of time spent on any subject by any particular boy obeys no rule other than his own choice, except in the case of the two compulsory written English and the three compulsory Mathematics per week. Because the amount of time given to the formal study of the usual school subjects has certainly been less than would have been given to them under the usual conditions, and, furthermore, because much of the work done in that time has been to a certain extent individual, it might be expected, therefore, that the standard of attainment as measured against that of a group having worked under normal time-table conditions would be lower. To test this, arrangements were made so that during one particular year certain boys should continue to work as a class following a normal time-table, and others should work as a free group. For various reasons it was inconvenient to choose two groups of equal intelligence, but they were roughly of equal attainment. The difference in intelligence between the two groups is shown in the appended results. As far as possible the two groups worked under conditions equal with regard to available facilities of masters, books and apparatus. Unfortunately, the number of boys who stayed at school to work under these conditions for a full year, the minimum period which could be considered as of value for the purpose, was small. The test, therefore, was applied ultimately only to fifteen boys in each group (thirty in all). These two groups

were required to work the Northumberland Standardised Attainment Tests, with the results shown on page 48.

It ought, perhaps, to be explicitly stated that these intelligence figures are not given to prove that under Free Group conditions intelligence levels are raised. They are given as illustrative of one factor bearing on the attainment tests results, and which should be taken into consideration in estimating the relative effects of free and fixed time-tables. Nor is it claimed that the results of this experiment can be other than broadly indicative. The number of boys concerned (thirty) is too small to justify any dogmatic deductions, and although, as far as is known, the conditions other than those arising from different school organisation were equal, there can be no absolute guarantee of this. Within, however, such limits, the results clearly show no ill-effects on attainment standards in the group working along its own lines. If we view the subjects merely as means of instruction, it is evident that there is little to fear that anything is lost by ignoring the claims of a complete formal curriculum in the last year of school.

Another line of inquiry has been possible by following the work and attitude of boys in the Evening School, some of whom in Day School had had experience of the Free Group conditions, some of whom had not. These boys are working chiefly through certain prescribed preliminary vocational courses. No tests to give measurable results have been made to show how

STANDARDISED ATTAINMENT TESTS

(1) *Arithmetic.*

	Addition	Subtraction	Multiplication	Division	Mental	Rules	Reasoning	Total
Normal	39.0	52.3	41.3	39.1	18.8	19.7	16.7	226.9
Free Group (IIIa)	40.0	48.0	41.5	37.5	20.0	19.5	16.5	223.0
Fixed Group (IIIb)	39.0	51.5	40.0	38.0	19.5	19.0	15.0	222.0

(2) *English.*

	Reading				Spelling	Geography	History	Total
	(Questions)	(Words)	(Sentences)	(Paragraphs)				
Normal	43.8	44.1	22.4	17.4	67.4	33.8	29.6	258.5
Free Group (IIIa)	43.5	46.0	28.0	20.0	55.0	40.0	31.5	264.0
Fixed Group (IIIb)	41.0	42.0	20.0	17.5	47.0	34.0	26.5	228.0

INTELLIGENCE TESTS

	Instructions	Opposites	Similarities	Mixed Sentences	Completing Sentences	Selecting Reasons	Simple Reasoning	Following Arguments	Absurdities	Total
Normal										253.0
Free Group (IIIa)	12.5	43.5	19.0	12.0	32.0	17.0	16.0	56.5	40.0	248.5
Fixed Group (IIIb)	10.75	42.5	17.25	15.0	30.0	17.0	13.5	51.5	37.0	234.3

the two " sets " compare with each other, but it is the general opinion of members of the staff of the Evening School that there is no evidence of loss of efficiency in the elementary skills or loss of factual knowledge in essentials, in the ex-Free Group boys as compared with the others. It is the general opinion of the staff that in the classes they find the ex-Free Group boys more self-reliant and less dependent on direction and control than the others. Such expressions of opinion, however, although they are general and given with specific examples, can be accepted again only as broadly indicative evidence.

From these observations one concludes that from the point of view of mere instruction, no harm is done by the fact that a boy omits parts of the normal school course for his last year. This is the chief concern of those who would complain of the ill-balanced and incomplete education given by the conditions of the experiment. It would appear that such skills and knowledge as the boys have acquired before reaching this stage are at least not lost. If we note that most of the activities chosen by the boys are " activities ", and therefore widening in their scope as they progress, we find the normal everyday and necessary skills are practised and extended. It would not, in that case, be unduly optimistic to expect that the standards of attainment reached, even if they were lower, would be more real and therefore more permanent than those attained by the boys working under the usual conditions of organisation.

Although much consideration has been given to this aspect of the value of the course as a means of instruction, it is important to remember that the chief reason for the inclusion of any course in the curriculum is as an instrument of education. (This is further considered in a later section.) It is viewed from this aspect that the organisation would chiefly justify itself. In the meantime, the Free Group organisation appears to have a sound defence to offer to the assaults of the "instructionists" on their own valuations.

It would be timely to state here that no miracles are claimed by the system. Boys are not completely transformed by it. They are sometimes idle and wayward, but they are usually cheerful and happy and generally more alert and keen. While there has been no single instance of any boy's deterioration under the system, there have been several instances of notable and visible improvement demonstrated by increased confidence, independence and reliability.

To consider further objections made to the Free Group organisation we find a practical difficulty of importance raised by the critic who asks: "What happens when more boys than can be accommodated want to do the same thing at the same time—when sixty turn up for Craft, say, in a room with accommodation for forty?"

As already indicated, the problem frequently suggests its own solution through the choice offered during the rest of the week, but until such a solution is found there is need for careful handling of the situation. The

scheme can break down entirely under this difficulty, and for this reason its extension to other age groups seems to be impracticable at present, although in some modified form it may ultimately prove to be possible.

SECTION II

To discover the educational needs of the fourteen to fifteen group.

CHAPTER II

THE EVIDENCE PRESENTED BY INDIVIDUAL TIME-TABLES

Choice of Time-tables

When this experimental organisation was devised, it was hoped that it would reveal, from the boy's point of view, the educational needs of the fourteen to fifteen group. The conditions of the administration of the Education (1936) Act invited an expression of the opinion of all kinds of people on this matter—employers, parents, education officials, teachers, psychologists, Labour Exchange officials, technologists, and so forth, and the boy himself becomes a puppet in the game. In the welter of all who would claim him, it seemed to be forgotten that the planned extra year at school was really for his benefit. Hence, then, it would appear high time that we listened to him, and it was partly in the hope that his voice would be heard that this freedom was allowed. In this attempt to find the educational needs of the fourteen to fifteen group from the boy's point of view, evidence must be sought in his choice of time-table, his reasons for that choice,

and the general conditions and methods of work which result when these invididual time-tables function. It is proposed to consider this evidence in this chapter, dealing first with the factors which bear upon the choice of time-table.

As described in the previous section, boys are given the time-tables showing the possible choice some few days at least before their operation, and they are reminded that advice might well be sought from the Staff, parents, grown-up friends and other boys who may be able to advise because of their previous experience of the conditions. The kind of advice sought among the Staff is chiefly explanatory. Boys ask about the kind of work that is planned, or the facilities there are for doing this or that, or they ask how certain arrangements can be made to suit their special purposes.

Similarly, the advice sought from other boys who have had experience of working under the system is chiefly explanatory, although, no doubt, there is some frank and direct discussion. One boy, writing on "What I would choose to have in my time-table", said he would do subject *X* all the time he could, although "Smith" (his adviser) said he would "get fed-up with it". This helpful advice has its special interest and its humour if one realises that to both "Smith" and his pal, subject *X* would appear to promise "roses all the way" To this aspect of free time-table conditions we must return later. The attitude of parents and other adult relatives and friends, whom one might expect to be concerned, has been in-

teresting. Generally speaking, although interest has been shown in the homes of the boys in the group, very little direct advice has been given to the boys to help them to choose their time-tables, and apparently little direct advice has been sought. In this respect one would suggest that both the parents and the boys have shown intuitive wisdom, for probably no one knows the boy's needs better than the boy himself. It is most interesting to notice that it is generally expected that any interest shown should be from a vocational point of view, a significant commentary on the general view of the purpose of education or significant, at least, as showing what is believed to be the mainspring of the interest of grown-ups in the education of their boys. Again in this matter parents have acted wisely, knowing that the technique and particular skills required in most of the jobs which these boys eventually take up is learned only in the job itself, or it is routine work and is quickly learned without previous training, or is learned by a routine and often wasteful process which does not justify a preliminary waste of valuable time in school. In fact, the intuitive wisdom of most parents in showing some interest in his welfare but leaving the boy free to work out his own salvation, has been remarkable. It has been noteworthy that in those cases where detailed advice has been given it has frequently been ill-judged.

Occasionally one has seen, through this new link with the home, fresh evidence of the tragedy which was born when the boy missed a place in the Selective

Examination at the end of the Junior School course. Many parents, themselves toiling in uncongenial work, believe they see in this test their child's one great opportunity of escape from a life such as theirs, a view furthered by influences both outside and inside the education system. From this view of edcuation as a means of "getting on" ("getting on" in the narrow sense of economic advancement) spring very many problems, but, important as they are, consideration of them is omitted as irrelevant to our present point. For their child, however, education has little to offer after that failure, and they lose interest. There is also the other case of the "swan" shown in the examination to be a "goose" In this case, the parent in a subtle form of self-conceit blames his son for his own failures which he sees reflected in the boy himself. This parent has lost interest too. It is inevitable that a certain kind of parental interest should wane as a boy approaches the teens, but when this is associated with a sense of disappointment there is created a condition adversely affecting the outlook of the boy. Such a condition, affecting as it does many boys in the Non-Selective Senior Schools, cannot be ignored in the consideration of most problems touching such schools. The effect on the immediate problem is to leave the choice of time-table to the boy's own initiative.

Speaking generally, therefore, the boys find themselves untrammelled in their selection. Almost invariably the choice is determined by regarding the various activities as either being useful or recreative. In de-

scribing the subject as useful the boys give an economic reason, they say " useful as a hobby ", and frequently when they say " useful as a hobby " they are concerned with the economic aspect to the extent that the hobby will provide an additional source of income or will provide some amenity cheaply. This view, it should be noted, was much more strongly in evidence during the period of general unemployment in the district than in the later times of relative prosperity. There are, however, good reasons for thinking that in thus amplifying " being useful " the boys are not adequately expressing their meaning. Otherwise it is difficult to account for their choice at times. For example, we have the boy who chooses to spend as much time as he can doing woodwork because, as he says, it " will be useful in my work ", but takes no geometrical drawing (apart from such as must arise in his woodwork) which presumably would be equally useful in his work. The cynic would explain this as an example of the boy taking the soft option and persuading himself (or gulling his masters that he had so persuaded himself) that it was taken for the worthy motive that it was " useful "; and he would say that the boy rejects the difficult subject because it is distasteful to him, and he would have himself believe (or again try to gull his masters that he is so persuaded) that it is not " useful "

Both boy and cynic are quite correct in their statements according to their view. This, rejection-of-the-pill-and-acceptance-of-the-jam, objection to the scheme

is a fair and critical view. No doubt the boy does go for the things he likes. That is the fundamental idea of the scheme. The weakness in the objection lies in the critic's ready assumption that he knows which jam and which pill is good for the boy, and in the further assumption that when the pill is administered by his method it is swallowed and that, when swallowed, it has in its action a wholesome effect on the system. These many assumptions are readily made, but are by no means easy to prove. Some doubt upon their validity has been raised by considerations in the previous chapter. On the other hand, it would appear that the boy in thus interpreting a subject's usefulness, incorrectly expresses his meaning. More correctly explained, he means a subject he can use—that is, one he can do something with. If the subject does not fill this role, then to the boy it is not useful. Some activities, therefore, he chooses as being useful in the sense that they give him power. Craft and Science, for example, are usually regarded as useful. Other subjects are chosen because they provide some recreation. Physical Training, Games and Dramatics are usually regarded as recreations; as one boy says, "I go to dramatics for amusement." Viewed broadly, it is into one of these two groups that the boys fit the activities of their choice. It is interesting to note that activities one boy chooses for recreation may be considered by others as useful. Science one boy chooses because "I like it", another because "it will be useful with motors". Physical Training one boy chooses "because of the

games ", another because " it will make me healthy ", and so on.

Consideration of the factors affecting the choice of time-table raises the question often asked: " Don't the boys in choosing their time-table choose masters rather than subjects? " It is difficult to know to what extent the two are inseparable in the boy's mind. If all the masters were each offering one subject, doubtless the boys would choose masters as, similarly, they would choose subjects if these were one master and several subjects. In fact, however, master and subject must generally be so closely associated by most boys as to pull together or repel together to the extent that they jointly influence his choice. There are, doubtless, a few boys who argue thus: " I don't like activity " A ", but I like master " M ", and so I shall have " A" on my time-table," or who, arguing conversely, chooses not to do " A " because he doesn't like " M " The exercise of the choice in this conflict is in itself a valuable exercise, and in the boy's case a very necessary one, for the kind of boy who meets such a situation in school will certainly meet similar situations out of school, and he might learn by experience how to deal with them to his own satisfaction.

Examples of Time-tables Chosen

Let us consider the evidence of the chosen time-tables. For this purpose an analysis has been made of more than 200 time-tables—the time-tables chosen by

more than 100 boys in two successive terms—from the general time-table shown on page 32. The results of this analysis are shown on page 63.

Column I shows the amount of time spent per boy in the subject indicated expressed as a percentage of the whole time.

Column II shows the percentage of the available time in the particular subject used by the "average" boy. The headings *A*, *B* and *C* have the usual connotation for A, B and C groups—referring to group designation of the particular boys before attaining Free Group status.

Column III shows the amount of time available in one "week" for each particular subject.

It should be noted that the Free Group as a class meets daily for half an hour for Scripture (following a local approved scheme) and to join in the School Assembly for Prayers. This time is in addition to the times shown in the analyses set forth.

In drawing any conclusions from these statistics it is essential that all the relevant figures should be taken into account. Even then certain irrelevant factors are not eliminated, when the statistics are examined with a view to the assessment of the relative popularity of the subjects in a general way. There are certain circumstances peculiar to the School (for example, the necessity, in certain cases, for double periods) which have affected the results. The fact that in each case the boy's time-table results from a choice limited by the general time-table, must modify any assumption

Subject	A Boys I % of total time	A Boys II % of available time used.	"B" Boys I % of total time	"B" Boys II % of available time used.	"C" Boys I % of total time	"C" Boys II % of available time used.	"C" Boys III No. of available periods per "week."
Craft	26.2	73	26.7	74	32.2	89	18
Art	11.2	26	11.7	28	14.0	32	22
Science	10.2	30	13.8	41	13.2	38	17
Games ...	4.8	60	4.0	50	4.2	50	4
Physical Training	6.1	61	5.7	57	4.8	48	5
*English 1	8.8	44	7.1	39	6.6	37	9
English 2	2.4	30	1.7	21	1.0	12	4
English 3	1.1	18	1.0	16	1.5	25	3
History	.7	9	.5	6	.8	10	4
Geography	5.0	27	5.8	32	4.0	22	9
*Mathematics	6.4	40	6.0	37	6.0	37	8
Music	4.7	39	5.2	43	3.9	32	6
Dramatics	5.0	45	4.3	43	1.6	16	5
Book-keeping	2.6	17	1.2	8	1.8	11	8
†Machine Drawing	.6	10	1.2	20	.6	10	3
Private Study	2.0	33	2.2	36	2.2	36	3
Hygiene	2.2	36	1.9	31	1.6	27	3
	100.0		100.0		100.0		

* 2 English 1, 3 Mathematics compulsory for each boy.
† Machine Drawing can be taken during " Art " periods.

that the picture is accurately representative of completely free conditions. For example, the choice exercised on occasions may rest between alternatives, neither of which is greatly liked, and on the other hand, may rest between equally popular alternatives. These factors, irrelevant to the point under consideration, affect mainly the figures in Column I. In viewing the figures in Column II, however, it should be borne in mind that although mathematically the amount of time used by the 'average' boy out of the time available can be scaled, to afford comparisons, it is impossible so to scale them as to eliminate the effect that the varying amounts of time available have on the boy's choice. For example, for Art there are in a 'week' twenty-two periods available, more than in any other subject; for games, on the other hand, four periods are available. It may be expected that since there are only four periods possible in one case they will all be readily used by several boys, whereas it will be unlikely that all twenty-two periods possible in the other case will be used by any one boy. For this reason, therefore, the value of figures in Column II, which should be viewed in relation to those in Column I, should be estimated in terms of those in Column III. With these reservations, it may be assumed that the statistics are fairly representative of the relative popularity of the subjects of the curriculum with boys in the fourteen to fifteen group. The results probably present no surprises to those engaged in Senior School work. The practical group (Craft, Art, Science,

Games and Physical Training) pulls strongly: the 'academic' group (English, History, Geography and Mathematics) less so: Book-keeping and Hygiene, in spite of having the 'fillip' of being new subjects (they are not on the time-table for the rest of the School) have a limited appeal: Music and Dramatics have their strong devotees and others who leave them entirely alone; similarly, Machine Drawing is usually taken on all available periods or not at all (Machine Drawing can be taken during Art periods). The evidence of decreasing interest in English and the increasing interest in Craft as we move from A to C is orthodox, although it should be noted that the A boy is little different from the C boy in his tastes for 'practical' subjects. This point again will cause no surprise to the practising schoolmaster, who has long ago realised that the theory that the C boy will make up for his lack of skill in academic subjects by marked ability in practical work, is without foundation in fact. The A boy usually excels in everything—Games, Dramatics, Physical Training, Craft, Mathematics, English, and so forth. There is, however, no doubt that the C boy does his best work in the 'practical' subjects—Physical Training, Woodwork, or Art (the light crafts), and through his success there gains confidence in himself which reacts tremendously on his outlook. The beneficial effect this has on his bodily, mental and spiritual health is very great, and for that reason the greatest possible availability of practical work is well justified. It is, however, quite wrong to credit him with abilities

in these activities excelling those generally attributed to the A boy.

These statistics, however, in so far as they have value at all, are indicative only of the reactions of the group as a group to the conditions. They represent, mathematically, the response of the 'average boy' in his particular group. Like 'the man in the street', 'the average listener' and such abstractions, he does not exist. So that, interesting and helpful as such figures are in helping us to cater for the needs of the fourteen to fifteen group, they cannot justify any ready-made scheme as adequate to meet the needs of the individual members of the group. To illustrate this, examples of individual time-tables, from which the preceding statistics were obtained, are appended. It is only with much qualification that any individual time-table can be quoted as 'typical', but those submitted may be regarded as 'fair' samples of each type of boy. There are five representative of each type, showing, for each boy, his first time-table and his amended time-table for the second term. From such as these the 'averages' were calculated. For the purpose of comparisons the figures given show the number of periods spent in each subject during a period of two 'weeks' (a 'week' is forty-nine periods as shown earlier, so that the total ninety-eight easily leads to percentage comparisons with those shown on the previous table). An examination of any of these time-tables will show how far short a uniform time-table embodying the conditions shown on page 63 would fail to meet each

A TYPE

Subject	First Time-Tables L	M	N	O	P	Second Time-Tables L	M	N	O	P
Craft	36	36	14	0	28	36	36	20	0	20
Art	28	0	10	12	10	20	0	10	16	14
Science	8	18	4	0	20	16	18	8	0	24
Games ...	0	4	4	8	4	0	4	4	8	4
Physical Training	4	6	8	10	4	4	6	4	10	4
*English 1	12	6	16	10	4	12	6	12	8	6
English 2	4	0	8	0	4	0	0	8	0	4
English 3	0	6	2	0	2	4	6	0	0	2
History	0	0	0	4	2	0	0	0	4	2
Geography	0	2	10	12	0	0	2	10	10	0
*Mathematics	6	6	6	8	6	6	6	6	8	6
Music	0	4	8	6	2	0	4	8	6	2
Dramatics	0	4	8	10	0	0	0	8	10	0
Book-keeping	0	4	0	8	0	0	8	0	8	0
†Machine Drawing...	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	6
Private Study	0	0	0	4	2	0	0	0	4	0
Hygiene ...	0	2	0	6	4	0	2	0	6	4

B TYPE

Subject	First Time-Tables Q	R	S	T	U	Second Time-Tables Q	R	S	T	U
Craft	36	0	30	26	36	28	0	36	20	36
Art	6	6	16	6	22	14	0	6	16	24
Science	12	20	18	20	0	10	24	26	8	0
Games ...	4	8	4	4	4	8	8	4	4	4
Physical Training	6	10	2	8	6	6	10	2	6	6
*English 1	10	10	4	8	6	10	12	4	12	6
English 2	0	4	0	2	0	0	2	0	6	0
English 3	2	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	4	0
History	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
Geography	10	0	2	4	10	10	4	0	4	10
*Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Music	2	6	2	4	6	2	6	6	4	4
Dramatics	0	10	8	8	0	0	8	4	4	0
Book-keeping	0	8	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0
†Machine Drawing...	0	6	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0
Private Study	2	2	2	2	0	2	2	2	4	0
Hygiene ...	2	2	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	2

"C" TYPE

Subject	First Time-Tables					Second Time-Tables				
	V	W	X	Y	Z	V	W	X	Y	Z
Craft	36	36	14	36	36	36	36	14	28	36
Art	32	4	12	4	18	36	8	14	0	18
Science	8	20	18	20	8	8	16	8	20	8
Games	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	8	4	4
Physical Training	0	4	8	4	4	0	4	10	6	4
*English 1	4	4	8	4	4	6	4	10	6	4
English 2	4	0	2	2	0	0	0	4	4	0
English 3	0	2	0	2	2	0	2	0	2	2
History	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	2	2	0
Geography	0	6	4	2	6	6	6	8	8	6
*Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	2	6	6	6	6
Music	0	4	4	6	4	0	4	6	4	4
Dramatics	0	0	4	2	0	0	0	2	0	0
Book-keeping	0	4	6	0	4	0	4	6	0	4
†Machine Drawing...	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Private Study	4	2	4	4	0	0	2	0	4	0
Hygiene	0	2	2	0	2	0	2	0	4	2

N.B.—Time-Tables are shown again exclusive of Scripture.
* 2 periods English 1, 3 periods Mathematics compulsory for each boy.
† Machine Drawing can be taken in Art periods.
The letters L—Z represent individual boys.

individual boy's needs, although representative of the average of the group.

Methods and Groups

Let us consider now the general conditions and methods of work as described in previous section. The functioning of this system of individual time-tables readily lends itself to the project method, in one form or another. The project method is, in fact, inherent in the system. Sometimes the work centres round a

group project, sometimes round individual projects, either confined to a single activity bringing in many skills, or extending to embrace many activities. It is not proposed to discuss here the project method of teaching for descriptions of the method and discussions of its value, possibilities and weaknesses are given in several current publications; for instance, Miss J. Kendrick's *Junior School Projects*, and Professor Stevenson's *The Project Method of Teaching*. In the experience of this School, although no statistical evidence can be quoted in illustration, we have seen developing in the boys working under the conditions which encourage the employment of the project method, certain qualities which although incapable of measurement are none the less estimable. Boys working together on a common task or helping each other with their different individual tasks catch and enjoy the spirit of co-operation: the boy following an absorbing interest finds a new zest and enthusiasm for knowledge: the boy wanting to know and wanting to find out, learns to work independently of a master and becomes less helpless when left to his own resources. It has happened over and over again that individual boys through the system, as it has lent itself to project work, have changed in outlook and developed confidence and strength. In respect of skills and techniques capable of measurement, there is no evidence of loss of efficiency in 'fundamentals', as evidenced in the test described earlier. There are good reasons for believing that skills acquired through the project

method are gained permanently and at an economy of time and effort.

Apart from the fact that the project method is a natural outcome of the system, there is the further interesting result that each boy as he goes through his 'week' finds himself in association with different groups of boys. The number of possible combinations in a time-table of optionals such as we are considering is such that it is very rare—in fact in over two years no single case has occurred—for any two boys to have identical time-tables. Thus any observer viewing the whole 'week' would see a number of groups rhythmically changing, repeating and varying kaleidoscopically.

There are two important results of this condition. Through it the boy is brought into working contact with boys of other ability, other physique, other mental make-up and other outlook, but, for the occasions on which they meet, with like interests, desires or ambitions. This, it is suggested, is meeting his educational needs in a social sense in a manner which no other system can offer. It is an alternative to the usual Senior School classification which, based on the application of intelligence quotients or attainment criteria, results in the A, B, C stream system. This system is admirable in many respects and has proved successful in giving new confidence, new hopes and new ambitions to many boys. It may, in fact, as wider experience of the results is gained, continue to prove to be the best system for catering for the needs of the boys in the Non-Selective School for the first

year or two of their course. This respect for the success of the system must not, however, blind us to its weaknesses. It lends itself readily to class methods of instruction and no doubt in principle is inspired by the belief that school is primarily a place for instruction. Its inadequacy is revealed as we view the school as a place for education in a broader sense. Then this segregation of boys according to the assessment of intelligence, ability and attainment criteria does not appear to be the last word on the matter. Conditions for the sharing of activities and experience through which the growing personalities develop, as distinct from conditions for instructional purposes, are no more created by forming groups based on intelligence or ability or scholastic attainment than they would be by forming groups based upon height or weight, or colour of hair or other physical characteristics. A method of grouping children according their educability has yet to be devised, and in view of the variability of the activities, it would appear that such grouping could never be satisfactory as long as it remained static. Apparently, therefore, the most satisfactory solution of attempts to group children for educability will result from a system by which the groups arise naturally. By the working of a system of this kind the child will be choosing for himself the conditions most favourable to the needs of his growing personality and through which, therefore, he finds healthy exercise and wholesome experience. Through the workings of such a system as we are considering,

the groups are non-static, but change with the activities which give rise to them, and therefore apparently provide the conditions of educability to a degree which no single formula could possibly give.

There is also need to pay some respect to the views of those who see in the A, B, C stream system the danger of new class distinctions in the community, although this should afford no alarm so long as the A, B and C groups are not regarded as being grades of quality in the schools themselves. This point has been regarded as being of sufficient importance by the Board of Education as to justify a special paragraph in the *Suggestions*: " Organisation by streams has one serious danger. Many children of less intelligence . . . may already have impressed upon them a sense of their inferiority. It will be one of the main tasks of the Senior School to counteract this " The need to counteract this denomination of a child as A, B or C is urgent; already the terms are becoming associated in the public mind with grades of quality. One hears of employers who do not want the 'C' boy, and parents who want their boy to be 'promoted' to the A class so that he can get a better job. Moving from C to A should not be regarded as promoting nor from A to C as degrading. The idea is quickly becoming established, and must spring originally from the schools themselves. Urgently and resolutely the idea must be opposed and again must come from the schools themselves so long as the A, B, C stream classification is employed. In general, Senior Schools are aware of

the inadequacy and the dangers of the A, B, C stream classification and provide some antidotes through combined school activities, through concerts, clubs, societies, house matches, sports and the like, which cut across A, B, C groupings. This is not sufficient, and a final year which ignores the three-stream division will do much to restore the balance. It may lead to the evolution of a scheme to include the whole school which, while preserving the virtue of the three-stream classification, will counterbalance its weaknesses. Speculations of this nature more properly belong to Section III of this book, but are raised here as following naturally upon this description of the groups which result from the functioning of individual time-tables. With reference to the value of this condition to the fourteen to fifteen group, there are again no statistics to show. In practice, however, abundant evidence is seen in the normal method of carrying on and in the relationships of the boys in the groups, to justify belief that the system is affording opportunity for social education such that no other system at present offers.

CHAPTER III

THE NEEDS OF THE FOURTEEN-FIFTEEN GROUP

Individual Needs

EVIDENCE of the kind described and observations of the boys as they have worked under the conditions, show that there are certain features which are characteristic of the development of the boys of the fourteen to fifteen group. These are shown in his activities. In the physical activities at any rate, as favoured by the boys who are normally fit and well nourished, there is fondness for movement, chiefly of the strenuous kind, and for practice which either improves a skill already acquired or leads to the acquirement of a new skill. Rhythmic or graceful movements as practised in marching and dancing are not appreciated. Of greatest popularity, however, is competitive team work in physical activities. This is not confined to football and cricket, but extended to include all kinds of team games which fall little behind football and cricket in popularity. Contrary to some expressed opinions, it is found that cricket is a

popular game in its season, and boys patiently acquire skill and proficiency in the finer points of the game. In intellectual activities an outstanding characteristic is the importance of the 'useful' Overshadowing everything else is the desire to deal with realities and those things which can be used. This seems to fit in with the second stage of Professor Nunn's 'Wonder-Utility-System' rhythm. "Of the three main motives to intellectual activity, a particular one predominates in each phase of the rhythm and gives that phase its special colour. First comes the 'wonder stage' in which curiosity is evoked and imagination inflamed by the intrinsic beauty, thaumaturgic quality or novelty of some discovery, process or idea. Next is the 'utility stage' where the centre of interest shifts to the practical usefulness of the discovery or process or the part played by the idea in the affairs of men. The last is the 'system stage' when the chief intellectual motive is the desire to cover the ground of a subject in a complete and systematic way." (*Education: Its Data and First Principles.*) Generally speaking, most of the boys follow their intellectual activities as accentuated by the second motive. Less frequently is the system motive in evidence. It is of interest to note that, speaking of the second stage, Professor Nunn states that "this is the place where what is called 'project method' is most clearly appropriate" Emotionally, the boy of the fourteen to fifteen group is characteristically passing through a period of change with its consequent instability. He is a 'mix-up' of man and

boy, and in the clash of the two, first one and then another side emerges. His progress towards manhood is seen in his growing independence, his restlessness under the restraints of irksome authority, his increased sense of responsibility and duty. These are accompanied by interesting 'throws-back' in spells of irresponsibility, wantonness, lack of confidence, desire for specific guidance. Any scheme which sets forth to cater for the educational needs of the fourteen to fifteen group must be cognisant of these general characteristics. It must provide opportunity for strenuous physical activity with scope for team games: it must provide opportunity for realistic studies: it must provide opportunity for his growing sense of independence against a background of security. Thus will be met, in general, the needs of the fourteen to fifteen group. Observation, however, has shown that against this background the differences in individuality are so strongly marked that no scheme could be considered adequate which ignored these differences. Evidence of them is shown in the individual time-tables chosen, examples of which have been given. For example, there are boys who evidently find their needs for physical activity satisfied without taking part in organised Physical Training or Games. Among the boys who want Physical Training there are some who cannot, or do not, enjoy the more strenuous activities, and there are boys who cannot, or do not, enjoy football or cricket or organised games. Such boys are exceptional, it is true, but the examples serve to em-

phasise the individuality of boys. These particular examples of individual exceptions to the general rule have been quoted because they are due to physical differences and inequalities which we are already accustomed to recognise and respect. Differences in other respects no less real are apt to be regarded as trivial and of no great matter. Viewing the whole field of education, these individual differences and the extent to which they call for respect raises fundamental and divergent theories of Education. Mr. Bertrand Russell in *Education and the Social Order* says: "Three divergent theories of education all have their advocates in the present day. Of these the first considers that the sole purpose of education is to provide opportunities of growth and to remove all hampering influences. The second holds that the purpose of education is to give culture to the individual and to develop his capacities to the utmost. The third holds that education is to be considered rather in relation to the community than in relation to the individual and that its business is to train useful citizens." Without committing ourselves to the acceptance of any one of these theories for all children, let us restrict consideration to the special needs of the fourteen to fifteen group.

It might be considered that this group has a threefold claim for special facilities for individual development. First of all, by virtue of the special conditions of attendance, which will apparently function for many years, there is reason to press the claim. As already shown the children staying at school will be

chiefly those who, on account of specific aptitudes or special opportunity, await particular openings, or those who stand 'rejected' Both require opportunity for individual development. The child for whom the class system was devised has gone. The boy with special aptitudes and special ability will find insufficient scope in a rigid system. The other boy represents a new type appearing in the schools—the tragic case of the boy who cannot get a job and who realises already that for one reason or another he is not wanted on the labour market. His case more than ever calls for special opportunity. His unhappiness and feeling of insecurity are heightened in many cases by the fact that in his home, which had regarded him as a potential wage-earner at fourteen, he is continually reminded that he is not pulling his weight. Sometimes this attitude is due to sheer thoughtlessness; sometimes it is a subtle form of revenge for the disappointment; sometimes it is adopted deliberately to 'shame the lad into getting a job'. These are not imaginary conditions but are conclusions from knowledge of actual cases. In times of slump (in a year we soon forget them) which may return again, such cases are common enough. The writer recalls now one specific case of a youth who, behind the mask of a real 'tough', hid for weeks the effects of continual persecution for failure to get a job, until, beyond endurance, he completely broke down and wept bitterly. For such boys, the school, to be helpful, must offer other than an other dose of the same old stuff. Primarily his need

can only be served in so far as he finds in school sympathy and kindness expressed in a security where he recovers self-confidence and release for his emotional stress and strain. Again, the special conditions of attendance of the fourteen to fifteen group brings in the boy who has lost his job. Apart from reasons due to the material fact of his absence for a time, his need is individual. He knows what he wants, or knows what he does not want, after his experiences of the realities of the working world. For him the same old stuff will be unappetising; in his case feeding the fed will certainly be feeding the fed-up. As long as the provisions of the Education (1936) Act hold, there will be found in the schools these conditions which must compel the provision of facilities to meet individual needs.

Secondly, there is special claim for individual facilities by virtue of the fact that this is the last year at school for each boy of the group. He is at the top of the school and at the end of his school career. If he has already been ' free ' it is too late to revert to any rigid system. If, throughout his school life, he has gone through classes, he has earned the right to exercise the skills and knowledge that he has gained upon some tasks of his own devising. He may discover gaps in his equipment before he leaves school and have them remedied. What a commentary on the previous system if we withhold this freedom for fear that he may forget what he already knows or lose the skill he has already acquired; how lightly

assimilated or loosely acquired they must have been, and how would they have appeared twenty, thirty, forty years on in the world if in the shelter of school they disappear in one year.

Lastly, by virtue of the characteristic of the child at this fourteen to fifteen stage of development, there is reason for his case for individual freedom to be specially considered. His growing independence makes him scornful of many of the restrictions attached to the class system and the force of those incentives which have formerly stimulated him, have weakened in the light of his new outlook and the realities he soon expects to face. Emotionally, he wants to feel secure and yet 'free' and wants to try out his new self. Intellectually, we have noted how he wants to be concerned with activities he thinks will be useful (not those which someone else thinks will be useful). Even in fulfilling his urge to share the joys of team activities and his desire to co-operate with others, he expresses his individuality, for his loyalty is given only to the team of which he is a member by exercising his own choice. It is impossible to ignore the strongly marked individualism of this stage of development.

It is in virtue of these considerations that the plea for the maximum of individual freedom is made for the child of the fourteen to fifteen group, whatever theory may determine the system for the rest of the school.

The idea has the blessing of the Board of Educa-

tion. In the *Suggestions* we read: "The Senior School stage is in no sense a time of final proving, but it should at least be a time in which the children have begun to settle down to courses of study that suit their special gifts and in which they will have a chance to show their worth in some enterprises of their own choice and conception."

Having, however, persuaded himself what *should* be done the practising schoolmaster has to face the problem of how it *can* be done. As shown in the first chapter, the peculiar circumstances of attendance and conditions of leaving, force on the schools some experimental work to attempt to meet the situation. From this experience doubtless a technique of organisation will be evolved, by which it is possible to extend the principles of individual freedom to the group, when it remains in school as a full group unaffected by 'exemptions'.

The Group

In this chapter so far, an attempt has been made to make out a special case for maximum freedom in the choice of their activities for the children of the fourteen to fifteen group on the grounds of the special circumstances of their attendance at school, their stage in their school career, and the general characteristics of the development at that age. It would, however, be an assumption for which there is no justification to press the claim of this fourteen to fifteen age as being

of greater importance than any other age. Those anxious to press forward the claims of some particular educational reform have often yielded to the great temptation to stress the value of some particular age as the most important. Thus we have the provision of the Nursery School urged on the plea of the importance of the three to four age. The desirability of an extended Secondary School course is stressed because of the enormous importance of the later 'teens. When children left school at twelve, the twelth year (twelve to thirteen) was made out to be of greatest consequence. So the examples could go on. Every age in turn and its time has been made out to be the vitally important age. It is not that the reformers become dishonest in their enthusiasm, nor are they deluded. The fact is that each year is of vital importance to the child concerned, and vitally important, it should be noted, for its own sake, and not merely as a preparatory stage. Only as it is lived fully is it a preparation for the future. Any other doctrine is dangerous, harmful in its effect on the individual and ultimately defeating its own purpose, and yet, illustrating only from the Education System itself, we may find examples of one stage of life being narrowly used as a preparation for the next. We see the claim that Junior Schools are appendages of the Senior Schools; we have seen (so we are told) the Secondary Schools sold to the Universities; and we may see the Senior Schools sold to the Technical and Commercial Institutes. The insatiable demands of a future which

would sacrifice all the present can be responsible for withholding from a child all his rights of development. 'Jam yesterday, jam to-morrow, but never jam to-day!" Thus having sacrificed his childhood (or having it sacrificed for him) in preparation for youth, and his youth in preparation for his career, and his career for his retirement, he arrives at his death-bed still hoping for the promise of life. Can it be that the only preparation for life is to live? As far as school-life is concerned we may appeal to the authority of the Board of Education, as expressed in the *Suggestions* (1937): "A full life at each stage (is) the best preparation for later life" This thought is of great importance and closely concerns the immediate problem—the educational needs of the fourteen to fifteen group, for the argument that this year shall be used to prepare for some need in the future, is loud and insistent. It is urged that it shall be devoted to prepare for work, to learn the 'wise' use of leisure, to learn the duties of citizenship, to cover the preliminary ground for the vocational courses of this or that Evening Institution and so forth. These aims are indeed worthy and it is true that a sound education during this last year at school will bear on his future occupation, must lead on to a wholesome use of leisure, must found the basis of good citizenship, and will lead on to use of the facilities provided for continued education available in one form or another; but, as it is attempted to show later, it can only do so to the extent that it provides opportunity for the immediate

full development of the child's potentialities at this stage. If, indeed, it is true that educationally a full life at each stage is the best preparation for later life, then any deliberate moulding of education which ignores the child's immediate needs must ultimately defeat its own purpose, and this must apply whether we consider the instructional or more broadly educational aspects of the schooling of the fourteen to fifteen group. In either case nothing is gained and much, in addition to time and energy, is lost by projecting the child forward. Skills and techniques required for specific occupations are much more readily and economically acquired on the job, if, indeed, they can be acquired at all away from it. It is so with ideas and knowledge. It has long been recognised as part of the learning process that to be assimilated, they must be understood and appreciated, which means that they should fit in with experience. Those who would prescribe for educational needs on the basis of the limited and narrow demands of vocational training, either on its practical or academic side, are ignoring these facts. Similarly such values as love of truth, freedom and service cannot be imposed. They come from within and develop with each successive stage of growth. Those who would seek to force the development of these qualities which we duly appreciate in the adult, whether considered as worker, citizen or private individual, are ignoring the laws of natural organic growth. It would appear that any attempt to sacrifice or warp the child's development at this fourteen to fifteen stage, as at any

other, must starve or thwart those qualities we hoped to encourage.

This does not mean that the school, in meeting the current needs of these boys, must simply live for to-day. As we see when in considering the boys' choice of time-table, the boys themselves look forward. Their interest is not altogether in the present. The urge to plan for the future is a recognised characteristic of the Senior School stage of development. "The most obvious difference between the Senior School child and his younger companion lies, of course, in his greater fund of experience and his larger store of memories, by virtue of which he has a firmer and more confident grasp of the present, a better understanding of the past, and more power to anticipate the future" says the *Suggestions*. Experience shows that a boy's plans are usually limited to the near future, and go little further than anticipation of starting work. Since this is one of life's greatest adventures it is natural that it should limit his vision and dominate any other plans. If school is to help him adequately, however, it is essential that those responsible for the conditions should see more clearly ahead and have a wider view; not, it should be emphasised, to plan in detail in an attempt to mould as clay is moulded the nature of the growing personality, but to be ever ready to meet the needs as they arise, to teach the skills when the boy's own efforts fail, to show the technique when occasion requires it, to supply the information when it is needed, to stimulate

to purposeful activity and effort and to encourage respect for those virtues which make men and women care for all that is lovely and of good report. In effect this means that the school, while preserving for each boy in the group, freedom in the choice of his activities, must be responsible as a controlled environment for creating and maintaining the conditions, in which the boy seeks and finds satisfaction for his needs through worthy channels. Unless the school provides the inspiration and the opportunity his energy is misdirected to apparently purposeless ends or it is "wrongly invested" (R. B. Cattell), a process both wasteful in itself and unsatisfying to the boy. Not, it should be stated, that this danger, although present in any condition of freedom, is peculiar to it. Rigid conditions, which are inspired by a belief that they will obviate this danger, frequently blind us to its existence. We say he 'doesn't concentrate' (of blessed use in thousands of reports each term), which, interpreted, means that his energy is used in playing with his fingers, or staring out of the window, or restlessness, or day-dreaming and the like, because the tasks upon which he is expected to be engaged do not absorb his interests.

What are the ends to which he should attain ultimately, and to which those who plan for the fourteen-to-fifteen group must look? There is a certain irreducible minimum of skills which modern life demands of each normal person. Stated broadly, we may summarise them: he must be able to read well enough to

understand simple directions and instructions; he must be able to write well enough to make himself understood; he must be sufficiently proficient in calculating to deal with simple everyday money matters and the common measures. Since every normal child will have attained proficiency in these skills before arriving at the stage we are considering, a further detailed statement is perhaps unnecessary with respect to this purely instructional aspect of education. To the list one might add, according to some particular bias or taste or fashion, many additional skills which it is desirable he should acquire, and many things that it is desirable he should know. Discussion of their relative merits and urgency has probably wasted more time and energy than any other problem in education. Ultimately, however, we reach the conclusion that "the fully educated person is one who is enlightened in his interests, impersonal in his judgments, ready in his sympathy for whatever is good and right, effective in the work he sets himself to do, and willing to lend a hand to anyone who is in need of it" (*Suggestions*, Board of Education). Such are the marks of a good education. These are ends which must be envisaged by those who plan, and to the ultimate attainment of this goal the energies of the child must be directed.

In planning and looking ahead to the future we must consider the calibre of the group we have in mind. Much unnecessary disappointment and disillusionment resulted in the early years of the reorganised schools

through failure to do this. The policy " Secondary Education for All ", wrongly interpreted, led to plans being made to teach the children who were not there. Plans were made on the assumption that the new names, new groupings, and new enthusiasms in the teaching staffs would transform the children. Actually, in fact, the children were the same, demanding not the same old stuff it is true, but nevertheless not to be fed with new stuff for which they had neither the capacity nor the appetite. It will, therefore, be as well to recognise clearly the kind of children who will constitute the new fourteen to fifteen groups. With this in mind, consideration should be given here to the effect of the progressive decline in the Senior School population, and with it to the alleged fall in national intelligence. The decline in the birth-rate since 1919 is self-evident from these figures:

National Birth Rate

Living Born per 1,000 Population

1920	25.5	1928	16.7
1921	22.4	1929	16.3
1922	20.4	1930	16.3
1923	19.7	1931	15.8
1924	18.8	1932	15.3
1925	18.3	1933	15.4
1926	17.8	1934	14.8
1927	16.6	1935	14.7

On the matter of the fall in intelligence and the possibility of raising it by education, we may instance the following conclusions and opinions:

CATTELL: *Fight for our National Intelligence.*

Allowing thirty years to a generation we arrive at a rate of fall of one point per decade—a decline which can only be described as ' galloping '."

" Education may encourage habits of using intelligence in certain fields but cannot expand the capacity itself."

GRAY: *The Nation's Intelligence.*

" There is not the slightest reason to suppose that the average intelligence of the community is decreasing in what is perhaps an age of differential fertility."

" Through the progressive extension of educational facilities of the right sort we may hope to increase the knowledge and cultural attainments of mankind. This would represent a positive improvement in intellectual *efficiency*. It is not the same thing as an increase in intellectual *capacity*."

That the intelligence level is falling is probably the general view of those engaged in Senior School work. It may well be that the concentrations of larger groups of children of the same age in the Senior School has only brought to light a condition which was less evident before reorganisation. Six dull boys of an age group in each of six schools may easily be overlooked but concentrated as thirty-six boys in one school, their attendance extending to three or four years, are very much in evidence, and if we think of this process repeated in each year of entry we can see a concentration emphasising a condition which perhaps existed previously but was less evident.

Without, however, accepting the belief that the

average genetic intelligence level is falling, and assuming its remaining constant, we must expect, in view of the falling birth-rate, a loss to the Senior Schools to the extent that Selective Schools in the particular area continue to take out the same number of entrants. A constant number taken from a falling age group will draw into that stream children of lower intelligence and, in turn, the Non-Selective School will look to a group of lower grade of intelligence for its ' leaders ' This effect will be seen throughout the schools, but, in as far as it concerns the particular fourteen-to-fifteen group, it must be taken seriously into account for the effect is immediate and progressive, and will be accentuated as long as the conditions of exemptions are in force, to have the creaming effect already shown in an earlier discussion of this matter.

Furthermore, ' fourteen-to-fifteen ' will not act as a spell to bring into school, children different in calibre from those already known. Plans for ' advanced work ' that fail to allow for this are doomed to failure and disappointment. The fourteen-to-fifteen group will be the thirteen-to-fourteen group a year older, with all that this implies. If this is remembered it may save much disappointment. The children will be a year advanced in development demanding a new treatment, but they will not be transformed. They will have the same weaknesses and the same limitations we knew in the previous year, although those foibles may be modified and expressed differently. We shall, in fact, be faced with the problem of providing for the new

needs of an old group grown up and not for the needs of some new group. In meeting this problem each school must take into account the past history of the group, known only to the school. Every school then must devise a scheme in some ways peculiar to itself. At the same time the variety of methods adopted should fit into a general framework determined by the common features of the educational needs of a fourteen-to-fifteen child.

Educational Needs

Reviewing the evidence of the experiment as recorded in these observations, it should now be possible to summarise the educational needs of the fourteen to fifteen group. We have seen that the needs are individual. This implies that there shall be in the system some measure of freedom so that the individual boy may find the school serving his wants and needs. In that respect the boy finds security, and before there can be freedom for the individual boy there must be a background of security. The provision of the conditions which give a sense of security is the first duty the school owes to this group, as indeed to any other group. The method of establishment of this security in school and its nature, will depend upon the previous educational history of the individual boy and the effect of the other influences of his environment. As a general summary we may agree that the fourteen-to-

fifteen boy will feel 'safe' in school as it provides for his wants and his interests are served; as he finds help and guidance when his skills and techniques prove inadequate; as he finds order and arrangement in the general routine and as he finds standards of conduct, effort, and attainment which call forth his best self. In this condition he is free from emotional strain in so far as school organisation can affect this, and only in this setting of security is freedom possible. Indeed, it is only against this background of security that the boy of fourteen to fifteen finds happiness in freedom. His is an age of emotional stress. The values and ideals of boyhood are slipping away and the wider values and ideals of adolescence are not yet established. His new self he tries out in bursts of independence and chafings at restraint. This feeling of insecurity is accentuated by the peculiar conditions of his attendance at school, and is accentuated by his position at the top of the school. It is in this period of emotional instability that the safe background is demanded. He must feel in the school that values and ideals remain, that he is 'understood', that he is accepted as 'growing up', and that, although not necessarily expressed, there is sympathy with him in the emotional battles he is fighting. In the school, too, he looks to find that help and guidance which only a superior craftsman can give and which will enable him to attain satisfaction in his tasks. He respects and seeks the advice of the adult who can show him where to find this knowledge, how to make that machine work, how to carry out this

process, how to obtain that result, and so forth. Similarly, in the material things of school, he values order and arrangement just as he respects orderliness and control in the general routine, for its sense of rightness, fairness, and justice. Lastly, it is in the school that he must find standards of conduct, effort and attainment which encourage him to maintain his self-respect in his world of changing values. It is only within such a framework that the boy can be free: any other form of freedom imposes on him a strain which is more than he can accept, and in itself is the negation of freedom. A favourable organisation or system can accomplish much towards the establishment of these conditions, but no system or organisation can entirely of itself create the conditions of security.

The boy's feeling of security and freedom from emotional strain in school depends upon that intangible element described sometimes as the ' atmosphere ' It belongs to the school, it differs from school to school, it may exhibit different characteristics in different classes in the same school. Of greatest importance in determining this atmosphere is the personality of the teacher, the effectiveness of which is restricted or extended according to the system under which he works; but the essential elements—sympathy with, and understanding of, each individual child can neither be created nor destroyed by any system. These spring from the teacher himself, and when there is sympathy and understanding, the child feels that confidence and trust which is the first essential for his

emotional well-being. The qualities which establish that bond of feeling may be slowly acquired by the teacher by contact with a school of thought, through the practice of certain methods, through associations with a certain system, but chiefly are they expressions of his personality with all that has gone to make up its history. Possessing these qualities the teacher sees himself in each child—the key to a sympathetic understanding of him. In thus considering the importance of the teacher in this scheme, one cannot but feel the inadequacy of the title 'teacher' The description suggests a relationship too impersonal and a responsibility too narrow. It is not for purely idle or snobbish reasons that 'master' (or 'mistress') are preferred in many schools.

The school must provide these sanctions of freedom, and, having provided the sanctions, must give the facilities for activities through which the child will develop physically, intellectually, and emotionally. The general characteristic features of these activities have already been considered as shown physically, in the urge for team games and strenuous exercise, intellectually, in the desire for realistic studies and emotionally in the move towards independence. The important point is that there must be '*activity*' The term 'activity' in an educational sense is readily abused. To some it suggests bustle and restlessness with much aimless ado. Restlessness may be a relief for frustrated energy finding itself bound by meaningless, and therefore irksome, restrictions, or it may be a dissipation of

energy on trivalities having found lack of purpose, and therefore lack of satisfaction, in the outlets available. It is thus a relief from sheer boredom. This it not educational activity. To others it conjures up little more than a picture of cardboard, paste, and plasticine (a legacy perhaps of association with the early days of Hand and Eye Training in Schools), against a background of disorder. To such minds 'activity', for the fourteen to fifteen group, suggests Physical Training with some Craft and Art and little more than this, all carried out in a manner characterised by lack of direction and purpose. On the other hand, 'activity' can be interpreted to include those mechanical drills and exercises which, however useful they may be for some purposes, can rarely fulfil anything more than the needs of the instructional aspects of education. It can also be interpreted to include imposed tasks, devised, dictated, and entirely controlled externally. None of these extremes represents a correct picture of the activity which will fulfil the educational needs of this group. Their educational needs demand room for the development of the personality. Activity through which the growing personality develops is neither nebulously purposeless nor rigidly purposeful. It is true that an activity is justified as an educational activity only to the extent that it is purposeful. It is equally true that a purposeful activity is educational only to the extent that the purpose is appreciated and realised by the personality itself. The essential feature of such an activity is that the personality is free and is active in

thought, feeling, and execution. Activity such as this has been called creative activity. "Creative Activity is experience of any nature whatever which brings the active personality into a relationship of a peculiar quality with an element or elements of his total environment. The essential quality of this relationship is that it forms part of the process whereby the personality builds up its own universe. Acceptance of facts, or of emotions, and attitudes of mind, from another person, can never be creative. The personality must be active itself—and the creative act is one of becoming aware of these new relationships. Growth in knowledge may or may not be an outward sign of creative activity—growth in wisdom is an undoubted sign of it. Absorption in the necessary task and joy in its performance are again marks that creation is in progress. With development the field of creation widens."[1] Activity of this kind obtains neither through the dissipation of energy for lack of purpose nor through the frustration of energy by the rigidity of restrictions. Nor is its purpose to be served by the provision merely of opportunity for physical and intellectual exercises. 'Exercises' may serve the purpose of creative education, as they lead ultimately to the establishment of creative skills, but they are only effective to the extent that the means and object of achievement are appreciated and desired by the worker of the exercise. In

[1] A statement on "Creative Activity" supplied by Dr. H. G. Stead, Chief Education Officer for Chesterfield, to the Chesterfield Senior School Panel.

this respect the exercises are part of the process of creative education. Creative activity is not a stage to be reached some time later for which the natural growth of the personality is subjugated in the present. The imposition of exercises in order to acquire skills so that the pupil may be creative at a subsequent stage is a negation of the term ' creative activity ' Creative education implies the acquisition of skills through, and by means of, the process of creative activity. (It may be noted here in passing that a repetitive and mechanical task can sometimes serve as a cloak for ' day dreaming' in which thought and feeling, fancy free, are creatively active.) Nor is creative activity confined to art and craft work in concrete materials, as it is often regarded to be. This application, although very important, is an application in a limited field. It is sometimes believed to be the whole story, partly because the child finds his creative powers easily expressed in concrete materials, and partly because examples of arts and crafts readily lend themselves to exhibitions.[1] Creative activity may be seen in a child's make-believe, a child's poem, the made-up song he sings, a thought, his made-up toys. The essential quality is that the whole personality is active; that is, in creative education emotional energy finds healthy expression, physically, intellectually, and emotionally. There are, therefore, two vital qualities of this activity—the urge comes from within and there

[1] A recent (December, 1937) Conference Programme describes an exhibition as " An Exhibition of drawings, models, woodcuts, printing, woodwork, etc., to illustrate Creative Education "

is a threefold aspect of the expression. To attain the conditions for this kind of activity the establishment of freedom in choice of subjects is one step, but this is not enough in itself; the conditions must allow freedom in the pursuit of the subject to the extent and of the nature peculiar both to the individual boy and the particular subject. If we recall again some of the individual needs, as shown in the choice of time-table and the method of satisfying them, we see that it is impossible to dole out or allocate this subject as providing opportunity for physical activity, that for intellectual activity and another for emotional activity. For example, one boy chose Science for amusement, he said; another said he chose it because he could use it. Art providing, let us say, an opportunity primarily for emotional activity may function for another boy as a means primarily of intellectual expression. Physical Training, chiefly a physical activity, can well satisfy emotional or intellectual needs according to the boy's reactions and conditions. So the boy, free to pursue his activity in his own way, will find his self-chosen activities serving his needs. If we remember that the activity has been self-chosen it will not be any restriction of his freedom to work within the framework of the general conditions attached to it. For example, freedom in the pursuit of his activity does not mean that a boy choosing, shall we say, Games, and finding himself in a football team would be privileged to break the rules or play, just as he thought fit, centre-forward, goalkeeper, or full-back in the same game.

He would not want to do so. The fact that he had chosen football means that the rules and general conditions attached to playing football have attracted him. He would, therefore, be prepared not merely to accept the conditions but would uphold them and would, doubtless, keenly resent any failure in the control of the game to comply with them. His reactions to the game, however, must be his own, and the value to the particular individual boy will depend upon the extent to which his reactions are free. The satisfaction, to him, may rest on the fact that he is one of a team, or that he is improving his football technique, or it may be that he is just finding pleasure in being in football 'togs' and in the open air, and so forth: his satisfaction may arise from a combination of several circumstances attached to the game. The entire educational value of the activity to him depends upon his being free in his reactions to the circumstances. It would be destroyed by the pressure of any influence for the stimulation of some particular aspect to the subjugation of the rest. For instance, concentration in the improvement of a particular boy's technique may make him a better centre-forward; it does not necessarily increase the value of football as an instrument of education in his case. It may lessen, it may even destroy completely, its value to him. This example, although of the cruder sort, has been considered rather at length because the plea that a boy shall be free in the pursuit of his activity is usually greeted with derisive questions, such as: "Do you insist that when

playing football he shall play to the referee's whistle?" In this illustration we have considered the value of an activity as affecting an active personality in its threefold aspect. However, although in this particular example, and generally, it is found convenient thus to regard objectively personality as of three elements, these three elements are not separate entities to be developed independently. In an educational activity the whole personality is active and the personality develops through the various educational activities as it finds adequate opportunity for expression in all its aspects.

Another equally important and essential quality of a healthy educational activity is that the urge for expression shall come from within. The activity which is a direct response to stimulus from without, whether the force of the stimulus derives from the system or arises from the domination of another personality, can have little educational value in the light of our objective. External influences may result in activity which is unhealthy in its effect on the development of the personality. An example of this may be seen in the overstimulation of the competitive spirit by a system dominated by examinations and their results. Activity thus produced is at the cost of a healthy growth of personality. Activity urged from within encourages the healthy growth of personality. If personality is to develop to healthy maturity then this emotional energy must find an outlet through healthy channels. Freedom for emotional development requires a condi-

tion of security and the opportunity for the kind of activity we have described as 'creative activity'; furthermore, security and creative activity will accompany freedom of emotional development.

In this section of the book an attempt has been made to consider some of the chief features of the fourteen to fifteen group and to reveal their educational needs. If we assume that the function of the school is to educate rather than instruct, or even as well as to instruct, then schools must meet the educational needs of each group. It is in the belief that the fundamental needs of the fourteen to fifteen group are the needs of each other group that the many practical considerations of the problem are postponed until the next section. It has been shown that the free group organisation, through which an attempt has been made to serve the educational needs of one group, has been made possible (in fact, was imperative, if the situation were honestly faced) by the special circumstances, and apparently will continue to be possible for some time to come, under the conditions governing the attendance at school of children of this group. It may, or may not be, desirable to extend the same organisation to include the whole school even if it were practicable; it is, however, certain that the influence of such an organisation in part of the school must have its repercussions throughout the whole school, and lead to the

extension of the boundaries, here a little and there a little, to embrace a wider and fuller conception of the function of the school as a place of education. Some of the aspects of such a conception as they concern the aims and principles of the work of the Senior School are now considered in the light of educational needs.

SECTION III

To lead to a re-examination of the principles underlying the work of the Senior School.

CHAPTER IV

THE FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL

AN INSTRUCTIONAL CONCEPTION

WE read in the *Handbook of Suggestions* that "the aim of education should be to develop to the full the potentialities of every child at school in accord always with the general good of the community of which he is a member". It would appear from the consideration of this Experiment that there are two aspects of the function of the school as it seeks to accomplish this aim—the instructional aspect and the educational aspect. According as the emphasis is laid on one or other of the two aspects there are wide and fundamental differences in the aims of the school and the principles underlying its work. It is in the light of these two aspects that the aims and principles of school practice are examined in this section.

Owing to the circumstances and control of its development the Elementary School has the instructional tradition well established within itself. The religious, political, and social justification of compulsory education in its early days attached great importance to the

acquirement of skills in the three " R's " so that the child would thereby be eventually able to read the Bible, vote, and take his part in the business of every-day life. There can be little doubt that the schools of those days, faced as they were with the task of coping with a mass of 'unschooled' children, were well justified in the aim they set themselves of 'taming' them and then making them literate. Moreover, skill in the three " R's ", reflecting the all-importance of commercial life of that period, was of estimable value. The more ambitious pupils and schools therefore proceeded further along the road of writing, reading and arithmetic, and were rewarded for their industry accordingly. The pupils found their 'education' useful as it fitted them for clerical and professional work with its opportunities of 'getting on', and the schools thereby improved their status and importance. Thus the importance of the three " R's " grew. From the point of view of the present matter under discussion, the growth of the instructional tradition in the schools, this regard for the three " R's " had a further interesting result. These three " R " subjects could be " taught ", at least a definite result could be seen. As a result it was believed that the efficacy of the instruction given could be measured. This belief, apparently accepted alike both by those responsible for the system and those who laboured under it, affected every side of school life. The school itself as a building, and in its organisation and equipment, was designed for instructional purposes. The teachers in their training

were designed to give instruction and according to their ability to instruct their worth as teachers was assessed. The children were sent to school 'to learn'; they were " designed " to receive instruction. Thus the instructional function of the school was firmly established.

Since those days the schools have been at great pains to throw off the shackles of the limited three " R " view of education. As the school age grew downwards from a six or seven years of age of entry and upwards from an eleven and twelve years of age of termination, reading, writing and arithmetic were considered inadequate, and other subjects for one reason or another were added to the curriculum of the schools from time to time, and now the generous view, fairly generally accepted, is that schools function not merely to instruct in the three " R's " but to equip the children eventually to meet their adult responsibilities as workers, citizens and individuals with time for leisure. Although, however, the three " R " interpretation of education has been forsaken, the instructional conception of education associated with it is still held. Consequently plans are made to instruct the child in skills and techniques which are believed to be desirable in those adult responsibilities. The nature of the general plan adopted depends upon the assessment of value given to their various aspects. Plans made for the schooling of boys generally accede first place to one of the rival claims of vocation and citizenship, with the claims of future leisure a bad 'third' In the

case of the girls, authorities have felt forced to grant the claims of future home making and motherhood, and to play less respect to the opportunities there will be for leisure, and to the responsibilities the girls will have as workers and citizens. Having formulated a general plan we then proceed to tread the instructional paths once more—the teachers shall instruct, the children shall be instructed, and the school shall be built and organised for this instruction. The road, however, is not so clearly definable as it was for the three 'R's' Then we knew not only what to teach but also how, why, and when to teach it. We knew how the child should hold his pen, when he should learn to calculate by practice methods, what he should be able and compelled to read, and so forth. With regard to the skills required for vocation, citizenship, leisure and parenthood, we are not so sure of ourselves, but sturdy effort is made to discipline these skills to instructional usage. As an example of this we are asked (in recent questionnaires):

Concerning Citizenship and Leisure.

Should any attempt be made to give specific preparation of pupils for:

(1) Citizenship

(2) Leisure.

If so,

(1) What specific training should be given for citizenship?
and how should it be given?

(2) What specific training can be given to prepare pupils to make wise use of leisure time?
and in what ways can this training be given?

or again,

" The Hadow Report stated the aims of post-primary education to be:

(1) The forming and strengthening of character, both individual and national.

(2) The training of tastes which will fill and dignify leisure.

(3) The awakening and guidance of intelligence especially on its practical side."

(Presumably these may be considered as (1) Citizenship, (2) Leisure, and (3) Vocational aims.)

The questionnaire continues:

(1) Has experience shown that this statement of aims is:

(*a*) Too ambitious?
(*b*) In need of modification?

(2) Have any circumstances had an adverse effect upon the realisation of either:

(1), (2), or (3).

If so what were the circumstances and in what way did they influence the training?

(3) What special steps have been taken in reference to the realisation of any or all of these three aims?
(1), (2), or (3).

Just as training in the skills of writing, reading and arithmetic was firmly controlled in the past, so we strive to bring to heel the training in skills of vocation,

leisure and citizenship. We have not yet realised that it is an impossible task, and if we have, we refuse to recognise it as such. With a few exceptions, beyond a certain minimum three 'R' skill, we know the requirements of neither the vocation, citizenship, nor leisure of any particular child. The exceptions are the requirements of those children who seek to obtain qualifications which will serve them usefully in the Labour Market. These qualifications are obtained for no other reason than their value as passports into certain vocations. As directly concerning their work they are of spurious vocational value usually, but they serve as means of entry. These children, at the Senior School age, are usually in the Selective Schools of one kind or another, Technical, Central or Secondary, and as long as certain certificates, as for example the School Certificate and the Matriculation, are accepted as the only gateways to certain vocations, so long will this kind of vocational training be necessary in these schools. The tragedy is that industry (or profession, or commerce, as the case may be) has been taught by the schools themselves thus highly to assess these certificates as valuable, and now, like Sindbad's Old Man of the Sea, these certificates cling to the schools and order their lives. The other Senior Schools are at present free from such trammels, but there is grave danger that these schools, unappreciative of the warning of the fate of the Secondary Schools, shall establish (or have established for them) other certificate qualifications as estimable. We already have in the

field various Technical, Commercial, Labour, Efficiency and Preliminary Certificates, and these are offered to industry and commerce as worthy evidence of proficiency and skill. On the basis of numbers of successes in these certificate examinations schools are encouraged to boast their worth. Having self-assessed their worth accordingly, is there reason for surprise that these are taken later as criteria of efficiency? At present, however, the course of education, for the greater number of the children of eleven plus is free from artificially raised hazards, but there is this danger that it may become, like the 'Secondary' course, a narrow fairway with its 'out of bounds', bunkers and greens. This tendency to make education a process of certificate hunting is a legacy of the instructional tradition of compulsory education. Persuaded that the school must be cognisant of the child's needs as a future worker we seek to instruct him accordingly. Not knowing his requirements, for they are too indefinitely formed, we readily accept a course organised by this or that body, or we organise something general ourselves and resolve that into a course. Then we persuade ourselves and industry that this is acceptable, and proceed to instruct. There is something very satisfactory and definite about the whole business, because the teachers are teaching, the children are learning, the system carries with it its own motive power, and there is a beginning, ending and a measuring; it reflects, in fact, the whole process of instruction as known in the early days of Public Elementary Schools. The futility

of the whole business from the point of view of the aim it sets out to accomplish is clear. In the case of the School Certificate and Matriculation, which are accepted so widely, their value as they serve directly vocational needs is little, and there is little reason to believe that such skills and techniques as can be acquired in schools for direct use in employment are found of great value either by employers or employed. Evidence, in fact, points to the contrary. "Most of the employers who gave evidence were opposed to any highly specialised curriculum for pupils up to the age of fifteen, and several stated that they preferred that after the age of fourteen plus pupils should continue their general education with a slight bias only in the direction of industry and commerce." (*Hadow Report.*) Or, as a sample from the daily Press (December, 1937): "Leaders of industry ask for a broad, general and cultural education. With that as a good foundation the technical knowledge and skill can be added" Referring again to reasons given in the choice of time-table and the advice given by parents and others, as discussed in an earlier chapter, there is evidence from the employee's point of view of the little need for direct preparation for industrial requirements. Nevertheless the aim to establish courses of vocational instruction is still active. Futile it may be, but a course is necessary if we are to instruct and therefore there must be a course, so the argument appears to run.

We find ourselves faced with similar difficulties

when we consider the child's future needs as a citizen and in his leisure. In a rapidly changing world it would be a bold man who would predict the nature and duties of the good citizen a generation hence, and it would indeed be a presumptuous man who would assume that this generation had now evolved stabilised ideals of citizenship and government, drill and exercise in which would serve fully the purpose of the rising generation. The task of framing a course of instruction which will train the child in his future duties and ideals of citizenship, leaving him potentially a dynamic member of the community which he will serve, is one which baffles all attempts. Yet the attempt is continually being made, and schemes based on local government, economics, civics, political history, growth of institutions and the like are made in the hope of finding some excuse for instruction. It is even presumed that, having robbed the child of his childhood to prepare him for the needs of industry and the State, we shall then go on to prescribe for him how he shall spend his 'leisure'! Once again the method is through instruction. This time he shall be instructed in literature and music or, if he is skilled in his hands rather than brain, in the arts and crafts!

The fact is that instruction can serve only to a narrowly limited degree to help the child to meet his eventual responsibilities and opportunities as a citizen, a worker and in his leisure. Instruction is concerned with the acquirement of knowledge, skills and techniques. We have seen that our knowledge of the

child's future requirements in this respect are necessarily limited. We do not know the exact nature of the skills required in his work (and in any case they will be best and most economically acquired on the job itself): we cannot know the specific nature of his duty as a citizen in the future: we ought not to know his precise needs in his leisure time. For this reason our instruction must be either widely distributed (the antithesis of sound instruction) or pointed definitely at this and that on the hit-and-miss principle. Further than this, these objects of instruction—knowledge, skills and techniques—cannot in themselves make him a good or bad worker or citizen, nor determine how he shall occupy his leisure time. The manner of fulfilment of the demands of these responsibilities and opportunities will depend upon what he *is* and not simply upon his acquirements. His acquirements will enable him to carry out his duties and his desires and to attempt to attain his ideals, but they will not decide for him his desires nor his ideals nor wherein his duties and responsibilities lie. These will be determined by his attitude to life. Desires, ideals, sense of duty come from within, and cannot be instructed. They are expressions of a personality and are acquired during the process of development of the personality. Here we leave the realm of instruction, for, although wise instructional methods do not scorn the natural process of development, the process is of interest only as it serves an end and not as an end in itself. The aim of the 'instructionist' is the attainment of certain pro-

ficiencies by his pupils. As an efficient instructor he must pay some regard to the characteristics which belong to their stage of development. He may use them negatively or positively: he may play upon their strengths or weaknesses: he may overstimulate, he may destroy: the effect on their ultimate development may be beneficial or harmful; but this is not his concern. If his pupils acquire the proficiency which he set forth as his aim, then his work has been accomplished satisfactorily. The benevolent instructionist will not wittingly indulge in any methods inimical to the best interests of his pupils, but as far as he is concerned those interests are served only incidentally. Attainments are the first consideration of importance and development the second. Even at their best and most generous interpretation, instructional methods would seek to develop the child through the acquirement of skills, knowledge and techniques. It would be perhaps a fair statement of the instructional aspect of education that the aim is the acquirement of skills, knowledge and techniques in the hope that thereby the child will develop a sound, healthy personality.

According to this conception of the function of the school, education can be resolved into a number and series of courses, according to the fashion, needs or aims of the day. We have already seen some of the difficulties which arise from the wider modern view of the purpose of education and considered some of the devices with which these difficulties are met. According to this school of thought the educational situation

can always be met by courses which are imposed on the pupils. The instructionist considers such questions as " Why do we impose this or that on the children? " or " What shall we impose on the children to meet this or that demand? " The validity of 'imposing' a course is accepted without question. The general process is then as follows. The course is mapped out in logical sequence and with due regard to completeness, balance and perspective. It is then followed faithfully and results are achieved through drill and exercise. Educational and psychological theory are applied to make this drill and exercise process as economical of time and effort, and as effective as possible. It follows as a corollary that results can be measured during the progress of the course at various stages and at the end of the course, to gauge the efficacy of the teacher's instruction on the one hand and the pupil's assimilation of the instruction on the other. Failure by the pupil to achieve a certain standard is understood to mean that either the course has not been followed, or there has been insufficient, or the wrong kind of, drill and exercise. In any case someone is reprehensible, either the pupil or the teacher, or both—a strange relic of the 'payment by result' three 'R' days perhaps. They are reprehensible because they have been lazy or careless or indifferent. Therefore punishment and blame are to be meted out and the cure is a repetition of the process of drill and exercise. This is a fair description of the process. By means of it the advocate of instructional methods would undertake to make

his pupils proficient in Woodwork, Civics, French, Football, Dramatic Art, English, Music, Art, Natural Science or any subject in the worth of which he was persuaded to believe. This conception of the function of the school is perhaps rarely pressed to the stage shown in this advice—" Drill them well in the first year in writing and spelling: in the second year in grammar: in the third year in style, and then in the fourth year they will be writing some decent English," but this statement exemplifies the rigidity of the attitude of mind which favours this system. In this approach to education through courses resolved into formal studies we see the force of mediæval tradition linked to the legacy of the 'payment by result' days. It is the method that was used by the mediæval school men in their intellectual pursuits. Their influence in this matter by its repercussions determined to a large extent those who were responsible for, and in other ways connected with, the development of elementary education. We see, for example, the force of this influence still active as we try to teach the use of the Mother Tongue in schools! (the terms themselves are a contradiction). The mediæval use of Latin by the scholars left its mark in the studies of the older Universities (a knowledge of Latin is still a compulsory qualification of entry). English, when introduced into the Public Schools, taught by the ex-University Classical Scholar, naturally became a language study through the routine study of words, grammar, 'set books', style through rote learning, and written exercises in

grammar and constructions, 'essays' in prose and poetry. It was assumed that the Public School boy, by virtue of his opportunities, knew the use of English on entry. English in the curriculum could appear to be of value only as study, therefore, and to that extent the method would be justified. Through the influence of the ex-Public School boy as largely controlling the development of Elementary Education and the teachers whose training also had been influenced directly or indirectly by the older university traditions, this classical method of language study was applied to English and introduced and established in the elementary, and later the secondary, schools. As a result, although much modified in practice in later years, we still try to teach English, a living tongue used for speech, more than for writing or reading and owing its place in the curriculum chiefly, presumably, so that the child should learn to use it, as though our aim were the study of a language (even of a dead language). The method of courses, and studies, bearing the marks of the mediæval traditions, lending itself so well to the instructional aspect of education with its rigidity of control in curriculum, method, examination, equipment, became firmly embedded in the school. It is still active. It long ago determined the course of any formal education and the method of taking the traditional subjects, through its logically graded sequence from elementary to advanced. It gained control of the practical subjects. 'Practical' science became a school course of controlled and

graded experiments using apparatus and equipment seen nowhere outside a school. This was a benevolent interpretation. In its worst form it became notes and calculations. Woodwork became a formal course of exercises in sawing, planing, joints, and here again we may go back to paper and pens and 'learning' through the medium of notes on processes and materials. It still seeks to lay its devitalising hand on each new idea that comes along, making each 'activity' into a 'study' Natural history becomes the formal study of biology, zoology, botany: dramatic art becomes a series of courses on speaking, movement, gesture, lighting, stage craft. We get back to the 'same old stuff' and the activity becomes just another skill or some other knowledge to be acquired. Thus we see the death of every good idea as soon as it earns its place on the school time-table. It is formalised so that we can study it, the spirit departs and we are left with dry bones which all look so much alike. Moved by the force of these mediæval and three "R" traditions of instruction we seek order and arrangement in our 'studies' We might remind ourselves that a cemetery is a model of order and arrangement.

It is interesting to note how the strength of the mediæval tradition that education was the pursuit of intellectual studies has withstood until quite recently any serious claim that physical education might make upon schools. Nor even now is that full recognition secured; physical education, in spite of all the pressure brought to bear upon schools, is still a Cinderella in

the educative scheme. We have, moreover, yet to see whether and how 'instructionalism' and 'mediævalism' will seek to formalise and intellectualise physical education.

The instructional system has certain strengths, but it breaks down at many points and in its narrowness has many limitations. Its narrowness is illustrated in the title 'teacher'. The description suggests an impersonal relationship and a narrow responsibility which limits itself to intellectual progress and achievements. 'Teacher' suggests 'teaching' as a process relentlessly pursued for its own sake, imposing something upon receptively well disciplined classes of pupils. In a school so centred, the interests concern teaching and after that, or perhaps jointly, learning in a process from which all personal relationships are banished. The child has become a pupil, a scholar, a "B" boy, a Standard V child (or as one boy is said to have described himself "a junior mixed"), a grant-earning unit, what you will, anything but an individual being. He attends for his statutory two hours per session in order to learn this and that, or to learn how to do this or that. He becomes a unit passing through a machine designed to give him a ready-made outfit and at its worst designed to make him fit the outfit.

The strength of the system lies in its definite character. There is a beginning and an ending. It ensures that teacher and pupil work. There is a check on their industry, and when the work is finished there is, for everyone concerned, those who control and

supervise the system, those who labour under it and the pupil who has profited by it, that feeling of satisfaction and gratification that a job finished can give. As far as the pupils are concerned there is an appearance of justice in the system. There is the reward of achievement for those who worked, and perhaps material success in the shape of a certificate, which opens a door for them: for those who failed (presumably because they did not work) there is fitting punishment in failure and ignomy. The teachers are free to teach: they are not responsible for what they teach: they may be little troubled with how they teach it. The job, after a time, becomes routine and stereotyped (in fact typed notes with sample questions can be used year after year—a few additions each year will keep them up-to-date) and carries with it all the advantages associated with any straightforward job.

The system fails to fulfil the needs of education according as the importance centres on the subject rather than on the child himself—that is to the extent that instruction is imposed on him rather than serves him; or we may say as the results of the instruction are valued for their own sake (or for some other ulterior reason), rather than as evidence of the development of the child; or again we may say to the degree that the uses of the skills, knowledge and techniques acquired by the instruction, are real to, and appreciable by, the child in the present rather than artificial and of promised value (often problematic) in the future. In its concern only with physical and intel-

lectual results, it is fraudulent as it achieves its results through stimulii which function only in the system: it is wasteful as it uses motives indirectly to achieve its results: it is harmful as it encourages unworthy motives to serve its ends. Its condemnation is to be seen in its extreme effect on both pupils and teachers. Caught up in the system they lose entirely their personality: it demands of the pupil the subjugation of all his vitality so that he may have something imposed on him: it reduces the teacher to an automaton 'grinding out the stuff' without interest either in 'the stuff' or the receivers of it. And for what mess of pottage has this birthright been sold? Had the schools themselves not placed any value on it, it would be known for its true value—a hashed stew!

Yet in spite of the inadequacy, the weakness and destructiveness of their conception of education, which are well known by all educational practitioners, this legacy of the three "R's" dominates the whole outlook of school. Methods, organisation, equipment, curricula are in terms of the instructional aspect, and in our assessment of relative values and importance of the various aspects of school life we pay our respects to it. For some part of this surrender to 'instructionism' the school cannot be held responsible. Instruction can be made the cheapest form of education. Confronted with rigidity of accommodation or equipment (*x* desk places for *x* boys with *x* books) the schoolmaster may find little opportunity for anything other than instruction. Again instruction gives the

easiest measurable return for educational expenditure, whether judged on a financial or energy basis. The schoolmaster, threatened with estimations of his worth based upon measurable results, upon which will hang his future and the future of those dependent on him—be his 'worthiness' estimated by number of passes or the condition of the class exercise books, or the number of models made during the term, or the success of the football team, or any other outward visible return—is forced to take refuge in instruction. But as these controls are withdrawn the schools must accept the responsibility for the domination of the instructional outlook. Not all schools have *x* places for *x* boys with *x* books, and nobody is more ready than the schools themselves to adjudge their successes and failures on measurable returns. If the views expressed in this chapter are justified, then smaller classes, more liberal accommodation through falling numbers, freedom from rigidity of controls, raising the School Leaving Age, are not opportunities merely for more efficient instruction but for the practice of a changed conception of the function of the school and it is an abuse of the opportunity to continue to instruct in those circumstances. If a wider and deeper conception of education is to prevail then the lead must come from schools as opportunity occurs.

CHAPTER V

THE FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL

AN EDUCATIONAL CONCEPTION

CONSIDERATION of the evidence provided by the experiment emphasises the need to regard the school as a place of education as distinct from a place of instruction. When the instructional aspect of the function of the school is emphasised, the subject taught is of first importance, the development of the child is incidental: with the emphasis on the educational aspect the development of the child is of first importance, the subject taught is of incidental importance. It would be perhaps a fair statement of the educational conception of the function of the school to say that the aim is the development in each child of a sound, healthy and vital personality in the belief that incidentally through the process of this development certain useful skills, knowledge and techniques will also be acquired. Another approach to the same question is furnished by a recent statement that universal education in this country has produced " a literate but not an educated

populace ".[1] If there is any truth in this statement it would appear that the masses are skilled in the mechanics of reading, writing and calculating and other tools of education, but they do not (for some reason or other) use them; that is, the schools have successfully instructed but have failed to educate. What is the criterion of good education? We must remind ourselves of the statement of the Board of Education: "The ultimate test (of a good education) must be whether it assists in the development of citizens who desire the common good and are prepared to make sacrifices to secure and maintain it; men and women, that is, who care for all that is lovely and of good report. For the fully educated person, we should do well to remember, is one who is enlightened in his interests, impersonal in his judgments, ready in his sympathy for whatever is just and right, effective in the work he sets himself to do and willing to lend a hand to anyone who is in need of it" (*Handbook of*

[1] As reported, the statement is to direct attention towards the need for (*a*) increasing the school leaving age, (*b*) an increased "mental equipment" "Everyone who had fought an election or canvassed must know that the great majority of the electors had not the mental equipment properly to appreciate the issues at stake. They just did not know. They had not thought things out and were not greatly interested. One of the most unfortunate results of universal education ending at the age of 14 years was that we had a literate but not an educated populace." (Sir Ernest Simon as reported in *The Manchester Guardian*, 15th November, 1937). One would suggest that raising the school leaving age in itself could not guarantee an improved "mental equipment". This can be attained only as the schools use the opportunity for education. Nor will a "mental equipment' that stops at "knowing" lead to a proper "appreciation of the issues at stake". As the speaker apparently continued to say, there must be the thinking: and if the conclusion of this thinking is to be wise then it must be the thinking of the "fully educated person", the description of whom, as given by the Board of Education, is quoted above.

Suggestions). The school's function, therefore, is not merely to give instruction, for we cannot be instructed, nor can we instruct anyone else 'to desire' or 'to be prepared to make sacrifices' or 'to care for' These are the fruits of the spirit. They are sentiments; they come from the heart and are predominantly emotional, deriving their being from our instinctive heritage. 'Desiring', 'being prepared to make sacrifices', 'caring for' are certainly neither intellectual nor physical processes. There is ready acknowledgment of the importance, both to the State and to the individual, of intellectual and physical health: in the interests of both it is granted that no child should be denied the opportunity of fulfilling his full intellectual and physical potentialities. It is accepted that this is essential to the well-being of the State and the happiness of the individual. As far as schools are concerned, an appreciation of the importance of education in these two aspects is assured, for they are visible, and to some extent measurable, and, therefore, afford some satisfaction both to those who work to produce the results and to those who look for an immediate return in the education service. We can measure heights and weights; we can see better teeth, cleaner bodies, improved postures; we can count the number who learn to swim; we can show records of athletic achievement, and so forth, all as visible evidence of successful physical education. Apparent evidence of intellectual progress can be seen and shown in results of tests in skills, in the mechanics of reading, writing and

arithmetic, in exhibitions of work in arts, crafts and 'practical' work, in scholastic achievements. The importance of high standards of achievement in all these respects is granted. The individual who fails to attain normal standards is a drag upon the community and is unhappy in his relationship with others. Raising individual physical and intellectual levels will result in greater power and efficiency both individually and collectively. Moreover, intellectual and physical training affect the characteristics of the 'fully educated person' for they will help to determine 'his interests', 'his judgments', his knowledge of what is 'just and right', his work and his ability to 'lend a hand' They cannot, however, in themselves make him 'enlightened' in those interests, nor 'impersonal' in his judgments, nor 'ready in his sympathy', nor 'willing to lend a hand to anyone who is in need of it' This is an attitude to life determined by his emotional history. Feelings may be affected by physical and intellectual achievements, but it is the *process* of the development that is the significant factor in the promotion of emotional health or sickness. We are easily prone to attach a false value to results, which, although perhaps acceptable in themselves, have not, in the process of their attainment, contributed anything towards, and may in fact have been at the cost of, emotional health. We may, for example, encourage the children in school to give to a hospital collection. The gift sent from the school is no doubt acceptable to the hospital, and for that reason the collection is

commendable, but it does not necessarily follow that the children have thereby been stimulated to lending a hand to those in need or have even been stimulated to interest in the work of the hospital. That depends on the motives utilised by the collection. It is possible to imagine without much difficulty schemes to raise collections which appeal to, and therefore encourage, purely selfish motives, entirely opposed to the self-less feelings which alone can prompt voluntary service. Again, it may be that a competition for a prize offered for industry will stimulate effort. The making of effort is in itself praiseworthy. In addition the competitors will derive benefits consequent upon the efforts they make, but we are not justified in believing that thereby an industrious spirit has been encouraged. The stimulus of competition can only encourage the competitive spirit (whether this is desirable or not is irrelevant to the present matter). It is true that we have linked on to the spirit, industry and effort and we may therefore have encouraged industry and effort as an expression of the competitive spirit, but we cannot justly claim to have encouraged the growth of any other virtues. Physical and intellectual processes may, in fact, be so drilled and exercised as to be little more than a conditioned response. The result, therefore, apart from its intrinsic value, may be of no significant evidence of emotional development. Thus we may see the instructional method inadequate and even dangerous. It is inadequate as it seeks to promote physical and intellectual development without calling upon the

deeper urges of conduct; it is dangerous, as it seeks to promote their development by prostituting those deeper urges of conduct. Emotional development can proceed only through an activity of the personality, that is through an activity that satisfies an inward urge. Healthy emotional development takes place as that inward urge is worthy of the highest and best interests of man. These thoughts take us far from the instructional conception of the function of the school, and if, as we have seen, education is concerned with aspects of life other than the purely physical and intellectual, another wider and deeper conception of its responsibilities is incumbent on the school. These responsibilities are to be met in provision for what we have called ' Educational Needs ', the particular aspects of which, as they belong to the fourteen to fifteen group, have already been described. There we saw that educational needs are provided for by freedom and activity against a background of security. In these conditions we shall meet the educational needs of all children and in meeting these needs we shall provide for emotional well-being.

Just as the full intellectual and physical development of each child is considered to be ultimately for the well-being of the community, so it would appear that the full, free and healthy emotional development of each individual child will be for the good of the community—and indeed for the good of mankind. To what extent modern social and political difficulties are due to emotional ill-health has yet to be discovered,

but there seem strong reasons for believing that it is in the urgent interest of mankind (and for the State as far as its interests are compatible with those of mankind) that emotional development should be the important concern of all engaged in the education service. From the point of view of individual happiness we are more and more persuaded to believe that emotional health is vital to good life. It would seem, therefore, to be of greatest importance that we should grant " the child's right to proceed to his rich inheritance of emotional maturity " (*Creative Education*, Dr. C. Wheeler) as well as his right to attain physical and intellectual maturity.

The first step in this process is the provision of a background of security. It is not wholly within the power of the school to provide that background, for school is but a part of the child's life, but as far as the school is concerned everything possible should be done. Much already is done, through the various welfare services and by the provision of suitable furniture and hygienic buildings, for the physical welfare of the children, which indirectly removes one cause of emotional strain. Nor is the importance of this effect of these services to be lightly regarded. The school's duty lies in using to the utmost the facilities which are available. The time and trouble which is involved in obtaining milk meals for a child, no doubt could have been used for instructional purposes in some direction or other: nor will the particular child, by reason of his milk meals, necessarily show greater

efficiency in his work. There will be, therefore, no measurable scholastic gain. He will, it is hoped, gain physically (but for this there will be little credit given to the school) and by reason of the removal of one cause of strain he will be happier and therefore more 'secure' (for which no credit will be given to anyone). In such respects, however, although it might appear to be a waste of time, the school's duty is clear.

It is, however, rather in his state of mind as affected by his social relationships to which our consideration ought chiefly to be directed. In this matter the influence of the personality of the teacher himself is of greatest importance as we have already seen. To this condition of security the teacher makes his vital contribution in so far as he preserves his own and his pupil's personality, as in fact the 'pupil' remains a 'boy' and the 'teacher' is the "guide, philosopher and friend", and, as in this relationship, he contributes his share, not in virtue of moral superiority, but in virtue of his experience. "The superiority of the adult over the child is a matter of length and width of experience and not of moral quality." (*Handbook of Suggestions*). This relationship between child and adult is essential if the child is to feel happy, secure and free from emotional strain. In school a relationship such as this will create the atmosphere in which each child will feel 'safe' not only in relation to the staff but in relation to his fellows. An imposed control, dependent upon physical, mental or moral force, will inspire the spirit which retaliates in bullying. The

misery and unhappiness of the unfortunate boy whose weakness his fellows seek to 'cure' by bullying is known only to the sufferer. Already conscious of his weakness—it may be physical disability, intellectual dullness or some form of moral cowardice, the unhappy victim probably deteriorates under the treatment, never to recover. It is sad to note that, although in schools generally, physical weakness is now rarely a matter of scorn, intellectual weakness is often so regarded, and spiritual weakness is invariably despised and is therefore to be treated ruthlessly. The schoolmaster who would not tolerate the attitude which ridiculed a boy suffering the disability of a paralysed arm, may feel no qualms in encouraging the jibes of the class at the expense of a boy unable to distinguish the noun from the verb; and the boy who told an untruth would, of course, be regarded as rare game for the rest as an object of scorn. Is this significant of lack of understanding that there is intellectual and spiritual sickness, as well as physical sickness, requiring diagnosis and treatment? The beliefs which put the lunatic in the madhouse to be chained and beaten are still rife. It is notable that the present day school-boy, though less ready to revile any form of physical weakness in another boy than he used to be a generation ago, is readily provoked to revile intellectual or moral weakness. Does this indicate that with the increasing withdrawal of rule by physical force there is substituted a rule by intellectual or moral force? If bullying is a retaliation on control by force, and if observation of

increased bullying in the respect indicated is justified, then there is disclosed a condition of affairs requiring urgent examination as we review the condition of security. Control by mental force leaves no marks visible to the eye, but it can be more injurious in its effect than control by physical force. If bullying amongst boys is inspired by the use of force then it follows that it can only be put down by the disappearance of the use of force in the school itself. To use any other method to put it down is to attempt to cure the symptom and not the disease—a course which we are very prone to take generally. The only cure is to create the condition which inspires and maintains order and control as a natural expression of the conditions. This brings us back again to the 'atmosphere' which we have already described and which we have considered to be dependent upon the personality of the staff of the school more than anything else.

Against this background of security there must be freedom in which the child finds opportunity for mental activity in its physical, intellectual and emotional aspects. Mental activity is not served by drills, practices, nor exercises; nor is it served by intellectual or physical or emotional activities alone. The nature of the activities which serve educational needs and which fulfil the conditions of healthy emotional development are those already described in Chapter III.

The growth of the conception of activities in school

is well illustrated by the history of the changing outlook on physical education in school as shown by the successive names by which it has been known—' Drill ', then ' Physical Exercises ', ' Physical Training ', and now physical education becomes more and more ' Games and other Physical Activities ' We have here the story of the rigidity of drill, giving way to a prescribed course of physical exercises, giving way in turn to activity. Drill—course—activity—preserve a remarkable record of an outlook changing as the importance of the child rather than the subject is recognised. Physical education carried out in the modern spirit allows for free and spontaneous action attempting to follow most carefully the child's natural development. We do not set out to make each boy an expert rope-climber, nor an expert balancer, nor an expert anything else; rather we think of these activities purely as activities affording a means of development. We ask ourselves how are the boys developing through this or that activity and not how proficient are they in their performance of this or that. Success in failure is possible for each boy, a fact which is readily conceded. In fact, the ' expert ' is not encouraged (unless in competitive games and such like where his expert skill is used for purposes which are not regarded primarily for his educational benefit).

If we compare the attitude towards physical education with the normal attitude towards intellectual education there are some striking and disturbing differences to be noticed. In the intellectual subjects we

are much concerned with drills and we rarely get beyond exercises. Invariably we attach much importance to the results of the exercises, not to the child's development through the exercises. The outlook is one in which the process is regarded as a training *in* this or that skill rather than a training *through* this or that skill. As a result we want to know how many sums he has got right, how much Science he knows, how many lines he can say, how many finished models he has made, and so forth, and forget (or pay no regard to) the fact that the boy's development through his attempts at Arithmetic, Science, English, Craftwork and so forth, are really the matter for concern. The page of wrong sums, the ill-assorted knowledge of Science, the imperfectly known lines, the unfinished models, may represent success in failure as the unclimbed rope and the unvaulted 'horse' The boy who tried and failed to do the Arithmetic, corresponds in his intellectual failure to the boy who tried and failed to stand on his hands in the gym, in his physical failure. We recognise such physical limitations cheerfully and accept with sympathy and encouragement the efforts the boy makes. If a boy cannot stand on his hands there is an end of it, he cannot, but he tries and probably will do it some day, and anyway he has reaped some benefit from the attempt. That is the way we look at it. The boy who cannot write or calculate or read is usually regarded as being lazy, idle, careless, indifferent. Is this another relic of 'payment by result' days? That attitude seems to be more

readily adopted to failure in the three "R's" than in anything else.

The fact is that in the intellectual pursuits we rarely proceed beyond the drill and exercise stage. If we did, we should attach more importance to the boy's development through the acquisition of skills and techniques rather than his mere acquisition (or failure of acquisition) of them. We might also be as aware of the dangers and risk of intellectual and spiritual injury in the boy's development, as we are of the dangers and risk of physical injury. We take elaborate precautions against this in Games and Physical Training but apparently no one is concerned with this in anything else. But then, of course, physical injury is visible and insurable, and is, therefore, important. The comparison suggests another disturbing feature. Not only is the risk of emotional injury in the usual school system unrecognised, but it is often at the deliberate cost of emotional health, and by deliberate injury to emotional well-being, that often the system is maintained.

If we regarded intellectual education as the pursuit of intellectual activities, we should be more concerned with meeting his needs rather than with imposing on him a 'cut and dried' scheme: we should regard his growing acquaintance with the spirit of the activity as a method and a mode of thought, as being of greater importance than his acquaintance with the bare bones of the subject. The Hadow Report, at the beginning of the discussion on curriculum, states: "The school may be regarded as an ordered society in which

knowledge is acquired and pupils are disciplined in certain forms of *activity* [italics added] Such activities seem to fall into two main groups There are the moral and physical activities there are the intellectual activities ". This description, and with it the fundamental idea behind it, generally loses force when the activities are later considered in detail. Is this because we then fall into the hands of the expert, the professional scientist, musician, mathematician and the like, who, interested chiefly in his subject, loses sight of the fact (and so leads us to lose sight of it also) that our interest should be mainly the child and not the subject? In these sectional considerations, attention is mainly directed to a logical review of each subject, which, aiming at the evolution of an ordered well-balanced course as seen by the adult, gives rise to the ordered scheme which ultimately dominates the school. Such considerations have their value; the danger arises from the establishment of the idea that this represents the child's approach to the subject. It represents the logical approach rather than the psychological approach, and so results in the cut and dried scheme rather than the intellectual activity.

In striking exception ('striking' because it stands alone) to this concentration of attention on the subject as a subject we are reminded in the Geography section of the Hadow Report that: "However useful geographical information may be, its value must rest on its use as an instrument of education, that is as a means of developing the growing interests of the

pupil. The main objective in good geographical teaching is to develop an attitude of mind and a mode of thought characteristic of the subject." The advocate of the educational function of school would contend that the only justification for the inclusion of *any* subject in school would be its use as an instrument of education. It is only when a subject is an intellectual activity that it can develop an attitude of mind, and when it is a method or mode of thought that it is an intellectual activity. Only to the extent that any particular child is thus intellectually active is he developing on this side of his personality.

Emotional activity may find an outlet through the various forms of art. The *Suggestions* state that "the natural tendency to express through outward forms and satisfying arrangement ideas that are especially interesting or moving finds its outlet in the arts, whether creative or interpretative. The arts most commonly practised in schools—and none should be without its effect in awakening the sense of beauty—are rhythmic movement, music, painting, drawing and modelling, decorative work of various kinds, dramatisation, recitation, verse speaking, reading aloud and the writing of verse, and some kinds of prose composition", and we read that "the crafts which appear to originate from an instinct to construct are closely associated with some of the arts in that good craftsmanship involves as well as manual skill the use of satisfying form, colour and design" It would be impossible and totally opposed to a conception of educa-

tional activity to attempt to allocate the various subjects as this for physical activity, that for intellectual activity and another for emotional activity, but it is possible, and indeed helpful, to regard the arts which normally find a place in the school curriculum as primarily vehicles of emotional activity. They are very easily 'intellectualised' out of existence. For instance, we can easily make Music another form of Arithmetic, Drawing an intellectual study of the rules of perspective, verse a study of rhymes and rhythms, and the like: or we can make them artificial expressions as a result of the application of foolproof and mechanical rules, or intellectual exercises by the application of established rules—colour design by reference to a colour chart of harmonies and contrasts and the formal writing of verse exercises are examples of this. It has thus become merely another technique to be learnt, another skill to be acquired. If the activity is to give emotional satisfaction to the child he must be free in his expression. The function of the teacher in this matter is to help when the child, dissatisfied with his own unaided efforts, finds his techniques failing him or his skills inadequate. He wishes, shall we say, to write an account of his hobby for a Form magazine. He will perhaps submit his attempt to a master before its 'publication', who no doubt by directing attention to spelling, punctuation, construction and what not, can help the boy very considerably to express himself to his (the boy's) greater satisfaction. This is a gracious and generous act. Educationally the process has been

thoroughly sound. The teacher has helped, and no doubt because help was wanted and because there was a real reason for the errors to be corrected and interest in their correction, the instruction was sound. He has, moreover, preserved the condition of freedom through which the boy obtains that satisfaction essential to his well-being. It is fundamentally different from taking a boy's written account of his hobby (probably written in the first case as an 'exercise' for no apparent reason), putting in all the commas, marking all the errors, criticising the style and the writing, assessing a mark out of ten and returning it for correction. As an instructional process it is uneconomical of time and effort. As an emotional activity, through expression, its value is nil. Another example may be found in dramatic art in school. Its educational justification is entirely as an activity, limited not merely to the physical and intellectual activity involved in speaking, moving, 'prop' and costume making, and so forth, but as an activity of the whole personality. The teacher's function again is highly important and definite. He will encourage, stimulate imagination, help the child to understand the play and his part; he will offer a store of advice and suggestion when the players find their experience unequal to their desires in the matter of expression; he will know the source of all the information he cannot supply himself; but he will neither 'produce' nor 'train'—not at least if it is to be an educational activity. Dramatic Art should be a means of expression of the child's personality and not an ex-

pression of the teacher's personality in which process the children become mere puppets. Many similar examples, recognisable as typical of the normal school method, could be quoted, as illustrations of misplaced zeal on the part of the teacher robbing the child of those opportunities of emotional activity that he may find in school. Sometimes it is prompted by the instructional tradition which would persuade us that teaching must necessarily be closely concerned with marking, correcting, assessing. Sometimes it is prompted by an impatience which requires a visible result (or, as the case may be, an audible result) acceptable to our standards. Thus persuaded we seek to control expression through the Arts. We forget that our function is to help that expression, not to teach it: we forget it is a growth, not a result, that we seek. We seek to control and guide this expression also because we are fearful lest the child shall fail to acquire good taste if left to work out his own ideas. This is very interesting because in the first place it presumes that our standards of good taste are absolute: it presumes that, worthy as they may be in our time, they will be fitting and acceptable in the conditions the next generation will know: it presumes that standards of good taste can be imposed. Fortunately (fortunately for the sake of art and the next generation) the last assumption negatives any danger inherent in the other two, for only those values which have been based upon feelings can survive, for only those values are absorbed to become part of the personality. Imposed standards

will give way at the first onslaught. We see flaunted, even in our own time, those standards of good taste in colour, music, design, literature and the like, which we did so much to instil by imposition, as we note the 'stuff' that is wanted' by those who were once our pupils—whether bad or good, is beside the point, it is not of the standard we 'taught' The standards of good taste can never be absolute, but such as they are, they cannot be taught; they may be caught. In allowing the child freedom of expression in the right environment we serve not only his emotional needs but the arts also.

Since emotional activity is essential to emotional development, it should be perhaps explicitly stated that 'emotional activity' or 'arts' or 'free expression' is not a way of putting 'emotional development' on the time-table. We have already noted examples of the disastrous result of an idea gaining recognition as a valuable force in education and earning its place in the curriculum. There are signs that we are even now standing in imminent danger of seeing 'Creative Activity' on the time-table. Neither creative activity nor emotional development can be pinned down to appear on a time-table. Creative activity like emotional development, the conditions for which we set out to make, as the means of fulfilling the needs of education, proceeds through all activities of the personality. Although, for the purpose of discussing these activities it has been convenient to regard the personality in its threefold aspect—physical, emotional and intellectual—

it is necessary to remind ourselves that, as we saw in the discussion of results of the experiment, the elements of the personality cannot be isolated. The personality develops as a whole, and the chief concern of the school, as understood from the educational aspect (to return to the beginning of the chapter), is the development in each child of a sound healthy and vital personality. This view has the blessing of contemporary educational philosophy approached from different angles.

"The schools' business is to discover and to make effective a unique personality and it is from the beginning to end a venture of faith—a venture of faith in the existence and potentiality of that personality." (*Education as a Social Factor*, M. C. Jacks.)

"It is in fact unquestionable that the records of psycho-analysis greatly strengthen the argument for making the autonomous development of the individual the central aim of education." (*Education: Its Data and First Principles*, T. P. Nunn.)

"Knowledge, emotion, and power, all these should be widened to the utmost in seeking the perfection of the human being. Power, Wisdom, and Love, according to traditional theology, are the respective attributes of the Three Persons of the Trinity, and in this respect, at any rate, man made God in his own image." (*Education and the Social Order*, Bertrand Russell.)

The implications of the belief that the personality develops as a whole and that the business of the School is the development of the personality are very wide.

In effect it means that education is a life to be lived. With regard to one of our problems—the problem of the fourteen to fifteen group—it indicates that we shall not provide a suitable means of education simply by tinkering either with a syllabus or a time-table. Nor will putting something into the curriculum nor giving more or less time to this or that in itself solve the problem of any group or any need. It is because the belief that education is the development of the whole personality is not accepted that there are expressed from time to time those views summarised in slogans such as "Education for Leisure", "Education for Vocation", "Education for Citizenship", "Education for Health" It is because of this, that their several advocates cannot agree, and imagine that their case can be served only at the cost of another. It is also for this reason that the theories expressed by slogans, such as "Liberal Education for All", "Cultural Education", "Education for its own Sake", "Secondary Education for All over Eleven" are opposed as being divorced from the service of the realities of life, and for this reason are sometimes narrowly interpreted to their defamation, by some of their exponents. It is the conception of education which does not regard the business of the school as the development of the whole personality which is responsible for the limited interpretation of educational activity in school and which opposes the idea of new activities on the grounds that "there is no time for it", "the curriculum is too full already", "it is better to concentrate on essen-

tials", "there is no time for frills or stunts", and so forth. If Education and Living are the same thing, then there must be time for it; it cannot be too full, and there can be no such thing as essentials, frills, or stunts.

CHAPTER VI

A REVIEW AND CONCLUSIONS

THE exponents of the instructional and educational aspects of the function of the school would doubtless severally agree, in general terms, that the aim of education as set forth in the *Handbook of Suggestions* (the development to the full of " the potentialities of every child in school, in accord always with the general good of the community of which he is a member ") placed upon the school a two-fold responsibility for each child with respect to:

(*a*) his growth as an individual and as a member of a community.

(*b*) his means of contact with the life of his community.

The interpretation of these responsibilities would be determined by the religious, social, and political principles governing life and order in the community in which the school functioned. It would be presumptuous in this thesis and outside its scope to attempt a discussion of these principles. Assuming agreement on these matters, then, in meeting these responsibilities no

doubt 'instruction' and 'education' liberally interpreted would be found to be synonymous, for the two aims would be found to be interdependent and coincident. There cannot be growth without contact with life: there cannot be contact with life without growth. Indeed the exponent of each conception (again it should be noted—as liberally interpreted) may well take as his text the child's increase "in wisdom and stature and in favour with God and man" The instructionist, however, would seek to fulfil both his responsibilities by making the second responsibility his immediate objective: the educationist would make the first charge his main concern and through the process of its attainment seek to meet his dual responsibilities.

The school, seeking to function instructionally, must give some definition to "means of contact with the life of his community" In general terms we may agree that these means of contact are to be found in the skills of using language and number and in an acquaintance with the rudiments of knowledge commonly shared by his fellows. We may consider the skills as affording a means of communication through speech, reading and writing and a means of exchange through measurement and calculation, and we may think of the rudiments of knowledge as affording common points of reference. The interpretation of any one of these items may range from a narrow conception in terms of the mechanics of the simplest process to a wide conception which would seek to

include all human experience. The instructional aspect described in the first chapter of the section as inheriting the three " R " legacy and a mediæval tradition, represents a view from a particular angle. Defined from this viewpoint, which it was suggested dominated the outlook of the schools, " means of contact with the life of his community " is understood to be those skills and that knowledge, which the child, according to his ability and opportunity, is likely to find useful as an adult. This interpretation is widened, or further narrowed, according to the understanding of 'useful' and 'skills' In its widest conception, 'useful' includes those purposes which, in this connection, are usually described as 'utilitarian' and 'cultural', and 'skills' is taken to include both physical and intellectual skills. A narrower conception limits 'useful' or 'skills' to one or other interpretation, or attempts to develop one to the comparative neglect of the other. Whatever the interpretation, however, we see difficulties arise as attempts are made to anticipate the nature of the skills and knowledge which will be required in the child's future needs. Some anticipation is necessary by virtue of the aim itself (we cannot equip the child unless we know the nature of the necessary equipment), and by virtue of the system (the instructional method can function only when directed towards specific attainments). Therefore, under this heading, much time and thought is directed towards the discernment of the nature of essentials, fundamentals, minimum attainments, and the like, in one

subject after another, as its worthiness becomes established. While it was agreed that in favourable circumstances much could be accomplished in this way towards the acquirement of skills which would prove useful, it was considered that it must be a process wasteful of effort and often deceptive in its results. The instructionist, however, would seek to justify the acquisition of these prescribed skills and knowledge, not for their own sake alone, but in order to claim that the process of acquisition provides the condition which stimulates growth towards a healthy and full development, and also the training which inculcates those ideals of life which are appraised in the adult. This claim, at least as applying to the narrow conception of the instructional aspect, was refuted on the grounds that the method restricted itself to drill and exercise in physical and intellectual processes and relied upon motives which gave little scope for emotional development. For these reasons it was argued that the system not only failed to stimulate either full development or the growth of those ideals we sought to encourage, but could be found to mitigate against them. In summary, therefore, the instructional conception, as described, was considered to be capable, in modified degree, of affording the means of achieving its immediate objective, but to be quite inadequate to meet the full demands of the aims of education. The claim that the method of learning associated with this system in itself afforded a 'training' was refuted by reasons inherent in the special character of the system, but it

is suggested that any system which would justify itself as affording a 'training', either in virtue of the subjects themselves or their method of learning associated with them, calls for critical examination in the light of modern psychological opinion on the validity of the transfer doctrine. As examples may be quoted:

Professor C. Burt: "Careful research has shown that neither the mind, as a whole, nor its separate faculties can be trained by simply exercising them"; and

Mr. Charles Fox, in *Educational Psychology*: "If immediate results are aimed at without considering the ultimate aim of education, it is possible to acquire a high degree of particular skill without affecting general capacity. Where, on the other hand, an ideal is consciously pursued, a motive is at work which is capable of changing the whole mental outlook, since it is of the nature of an ideal to engender a 'divine discontent' with whatever falls short of it."

Professor Godfrey Thompson, giving a full consideration of the whole question in a chapter, "Transfer of Training", in *Instinct, Intelligence, and Character*, says: "In general, the rule appears to be that any teaching which makes the pupil more *conscious* of how successful results are obtained, is likely to assist transfer. And what is true on the intellectual side of the mind is, I believe, also true, indeed is still more obviously true, on the side of character and effort."

Expert opinion, on this matter, of which the three brief quotations are examples, leads to three conclu-

sions which have important and direct bearing on our considerations of the function of the school. In the first place, it appears that no subject, by virtue of some special inherent character, can give any special mind or character training. We may, therefore, review matters concerning curriculum relieved of feelings of obligation to some subjects. Subjects which do not afford means of contact with life for the child need not be retained because they are believed to serve some specific aspect of growth. Other subjects may become increasingly or decreasingly important in the light of this conclusion. Secondly, we are persuaded that the lasting contribution of any subject to individual development is the development of an attitude of mind and a mode of thought characteristic of the subject. A subject, then, must be studied as an activity—in that respect only will it fully serve its purpose as a means of contact with life and as encouraging growth. For example, "In teaching Science," says Professor Nunn, in *Education: Its Data and First Principles*, "our aim should be to make our pupils feel, so far as they may, what it is to be, so to speak, inside the skin of the man of Science, looking out through his eyes, as well as using his tools, experiencing, not only something of his labours, but also something of his sense of joyous intellectual adventure." Thirdly, we see that it is only when ideals are absorbed, that is, when resolved into sentiments, "each with its strong core of instinct and its body of feelings and ideas" (*Handbook of Suggestions*), that they effectively control human be-

haviour. The school, therefore, in serving the needs of growth, must be cognisant of the needs of emotional life both as essential to individual development and to the life of the community of which the individual is a member, the well-being of which must be determined by the ideals of its members. Furthermore, the growth must be encouraged and nourished as an organic growth. Neither moralising nor formal training nor any other artificial or 'forcing' condition can produce the healthy growth which alone can withstand the stresses, trials, and rigours of natural life. Professor Godfrey Thompson, in *Instinct, Intelligence, and Character*, briefly describes the process thus: "There comes first an unconscious employment of certain principles or ideals. These gradually become clearer and more definitely outlined. They are recognised by their owner and named, and thereby gain tremendously in effectiveness and in transfer power. This recognition must, however, await the slow growth of the idea to be recognised. The teacher cannot put the words into the pupil's mouth—or, rather, unfortunately, he can do so, but if he does it too early he will give mere words." The last conclusion has two important applications when motives are considered and the part they play in the function of the school as encouraging growth towards a full and healthy development. Healthy emotional growth demands that all conduct, work and play should be prompted by the wholesome use of worthy motives. A result, in itself perhaps thoroughly acceptable, may be obtained

by the unworthy exploitation of worthy motives or by the exploitation of unworthy motives. We may, for example, encourage industry and effort as a response to an overstrain of love or aggression or fear, as seen in the desire to please someone, or to win in competition, or to avoid punishment. Industry and effort are then stimulated at the cost of a warped and unhealthy growth. We may, of course, believe that industry and effort are sufficiently acceptable in themselves to justify the risk of a warped and unhealthy development, but we may not conclude that the industry and effort thus produced is acceptable evidence of healthy growth. They function in the condition described in response to the exploitation of an emotion, not as a response to the healthy urge of an emotion. It is unfortunately possible to produce the appearance of fruit without the growth that should accompany it: it is more unfortunate that many influences conspire to encourage the attempt to produce the fruit apart from the growth which should precede it.

The same principle is applicable when the remedial aspect of the function of the school to promote growth towards a full and healthy development is considered. School presents a controlled environment as its contribution to the educative process, but it is not the only factor influencing growth. Consequently it may become the responsibility of the school to restore a balance upset by other influences or even to counteract their harmful effects. Functioning thus as remedial, the school may have to make use of stimuli, the force

of which does not reside in the individual—it may rest in the school, the teacher, the class or some other aspect of the system. If, however, the school is to be effective in its ultimate remedial aim, the external force must gradually cease to operate until the stimulus eventually rests in the individual himself, and the particular conduct, or habit, or ideal we seek to encourage is an expression of the personality. Failing this all-important stage in the process, the method may be not only futile but a positive aggravation of the disease by inspiring a reaction when the external stimulus is withdrawn. As an example, let us say that a boy 'A' is unpunctual and therefore comes to school habitually late. The system of the school, as expressed perhaps in the force of a strong class spirit which abhors latecoming, makes him come to time. It is effective in making 'A' come early, but it has not made punctuality one of his virtues, nor will it do so until the force of the class spirit ceases to operate and 'A' comes early of his own accord. Should 'A' leave that particular class, coming early only in response to the strong class spirit, then assuredly in a different class, which did not exhibit that spirit, he will be late again and in 'revenge' doubtless more frequently late than ever. Many matters arise out of this particular example, but, keeping to our present point, the moral suggested is that the cure is made only as and when the crutch is discarded. As in the other aspect we are easily persuaded to take the fruit for the growth, so in this aspect we are often persuaded to remedy the symptom and not the disease.

We cure the latecoming but fail to treat the unpunctuality, which is the disease. It is revealed, when the crutch is removed, perhaps in a more advanced stage than before we applied the remedy.

The validity of the three conclusions arrived at by consideration of psychological opinion of the transfer of training doctrine, is accepted in the principles underlying the conception of the function of the school which we described as an educational conception. Applications of the latter conclusion have been considered in some detail as illustrative of the ideas of growth which are accepted in this conception, when the growth of the intellectual and emotional aspects of the personality were being considered.

It was agreed that the school was concerned, in respect of each child, with his growth and his means of contact with life, and that the educationist would make the first matter his immediate concern, hoping thereby to accomplish both aims. In doing so, he recognises the individual needs of each child as they arise both in the need to exercise individual abilities and in his social relationships. He believes in the right of each individual either as a child or adult to a well adjusted life both in the inner self and socially, as the basis of all human happiness and satisfaction and as essential to the welfare and progress of society. He attempts, therefore, to provide the conditions to develop individual creativeness and individual social-mindedness to the ultimate attainment of self and social adjustment. Regarding the older system as based on the doctrine,

"train up the child in the way he should go", we may well regard the system described as "an educational aspect" as an attempt to train up the child in *his* way and in that way he should go.

It is a venture of faith—faith not only that he will find contact with all that is worthy in our civilisation but also that he will grow ultimately to embrace all the ideals which determine happiness in all human relationships. It is fear chiefly which stands in the way of the acceptance of the doctrine. We fear that he will not find sufficient contacts with life to receive and maintain all the benefits our civilisation has to offer; we fear that he will fail to achieve these ideals which we rightly hold dear. In an age of doubt and change when we cling desperately to one crumbling value after another, fearing that the rising generation will fail to accept the last remnants of our heritage, we thrust them on them with all the force and rigidity we can command, in spite of the fact that in our time we have seen the futility of relying on values which have been imposed and therefore presumably accepted. Believing that only those values are permanent which are accepted through growth of the personality, the educationist makes his venture of faith as the hope of salvation for the individual and for civilisation. "Our crisis is at the bottom, not a crisis of thought, but a crisis of values," says Professor Nicholson in *Education and Modern Needs.*

The chief features of this aspect of the function of the schoool as it seeks to fulfil its responsibility for the

growth of each child have been described. Against a background of security, freedom for activity of the whole personality is the essential condition. It is not the kind of freedom so often caricatured, which presumes conditions where the child does what he likes without let or hindrance, or equally to the point, without inspiration or help. It is amusing but uncomfortable to note that it is always assumed that in these conditions the child becomes a tyrant against whom the adults need protection. Apart, however, from the fact that other people have rights which would call for protection were freedom to become licence, the freedom which would thrust a child completely and suddenly on his own resources is neither desirable nor just. It does not give that security which we saw is the essential background of freedom. Examples in practice may range from as sweeping a condition as "Do anything you like all the week" to a detailed instruction "For your English homework, write a letter"—both travesties of freedom. We may well sympathise with the strain felt by the little girl in one of *Punch's* caricatures of a "Freedom School" who tearfully asked, "May I not do as I like to-day?" Nor is the freedom of the kind associated with Mr. Bertrand Russell's *Negative Theory of Education* (*Education and the Social Order*[1]) for the educational aspect does not function as though the aim of education were to provide oppor-

[1] See quotation on page 77. The purpose of education to provide opportunities for growth and to remove all hampering influences" which Mr. Russell describes as a Negative Theory of Education.

tunities for growth merely by removing hampering influences. As we have seen, the school is responsible, in this conception of its function, as a helpful influence providing inspiration, security and material assistance. As one outcome of this responsibility its duty on those matters to which Mr. Russell refers would be quite clear. It would expect, exact and maintain standards of cleanliness, punctuality, respect for property and routine as necessary conditions of freedom for everyone. In a school such as we visualise, however, it would not be assumed that every delinquent who conformed to these standards had thereby been cured. Here we return to the principle already discussed in this chapter. The cure can be attempted only when the disease has been diagnosed. That may be only within the power of the expert psychologist, or the cure may possibly be effected by attention to some material condition, removable by patience, tact and judgment. In the meantime, the force of the school system which maintains standards in these matters in the interests of all, is effective in the interests of individuals only to the extent that it can be relaxed.

The school seeks to establish the freedom that obtains by serving the child's needs, accepting them as channels through which flows his emotional energy. We have considered how the educationist thus hopes to establish the conditions of growth which will ultimately achieve maturity. He would also claim that by so doing he would meet also his responsibility for the child's acquisition of the means of contact with the life of his

community. We agreed that such means are to be found in the skills of language, number, and an acquaintance with the rudiments of knowledge commonly shared by his fellows. This he would seek to achieve as part of the process of growth. Believing that the child learns a skill or acquires knowledge as his development leads him to find a need for them, he would contend that if the school, functioning as a controlled environment, gave, as it was required, assistance to the child, it would fully discharge its responsibility for the child's attainment of the means of contact with life. By virtue of his professional qualifications, he would know the normal standards of attainment in the fundamental skills and knowledge of children at each stage of their development, but he would not set these out as a course, making the completion of that course by the child his business and aim. His professional knowledge in this respect and of child life would enable him successfully to know the child's needs and thus be able the better to serve them by providing the right kind of assistance at the right time. He would provide the environment in which the child would find outlet for his emotional energy in circumstances which brought him into contact with the skills and knowledge common to his fellows. Let us consider, as an example, the acquisition of the mechanics of reading as a necessary skill to be acquired. The educationist believes that the child in the right kind of environment, rightly used, would learn to read, without being 'taught' as this is usually understood. The

right environment would include, besides the material equipment of pictures and the printed word, the friend (it may be an adult or another child) who would read to the child or help him to say the words as he tried to recognise them and use them himself. The educator's job would be to know for each child the right kind of environment and the right time for the use of the facilities. He would claim that the application of this principle by which the child read as his needs prompted his reading, would result in his acquisition of not merely skill in the mechanics of reading but also in the skill of reading in its wider sense. It is thus that he would seek to guide the child's acquaintance with all the contacts his life demanded. He would claim that the process would be economical in time and effort for everyone, for the skills and knowledge acquired as they satisfy an educational need are readily acquired.

At this stage it might be made clear that satisfying an educational need is not the same thing as using what is sometimes known as the interest factor in teaching. In that process we know what we are setting out to teach, as a preliminary we use some device to catch the child's attention by means of some mental or physical challenge; we may, for example, ask some questions, or exhibit a picture, or tell a story and so forth, and we may continue to maintain flagging interest by a deft use of the interest factor. The teacher creates the interest and he follows it up, taking the class with him. It is a cleverly disguised trick intended

to defeat the child's real purpose which would satisfy his needs. Skilfully used it will succeed in this purpose. It is revealed as a trick when, with increased sophistication, to the mutual relief of both teacher and taught, the teacher "cuts the cackle" (as frankly described by one boy). The process of satisfying educational needs finds the interest already there, the children follow it and take the teacher with them.

The educator seeking to implant the child's skills and knowledge through the satisfaction of his needs, will be charged with making life too soft for him. This charge is usually made by critics who, thinking fit to accept life on as easy conditions as they can make it for themselves, wish to impose the virtue of the hard life on others. Discussion of the fact that many of the children in the Public Elementary Schools meet daily difficulties in life far more exacting than those associated with the artificially imposed academical disciplines, must be resisted here, but the fact itself might prove a sufficient answer to the charge. In defence, however, the educationist could appeal to the sanction of psychological opinion as expressed in views on the transfer of training doctrine, or he could point out that he was merely perfecting a system already in operation in any school. The child is always urged to learn by the force of something he wants to do. Even the exponent of the theory that it does not matter what you teach a boy provided he does not like it, uses this device by the force of competing dislikes. The boy, shall we say, must learn certain lines or be detained.

He dislikes both but likes detention less than line learning. So relatively he wants to learn lines. All that has happened apparently is that we have used a want of little force rather than a want of greater force. There has been no gain in training on this score and economically it would appear to be bad business.

In this last example it might be claimed that by the process some knowlédge was acquired which would not have been gained in the conditions which seek to serve the satisfaction of the child's needs. It may be granted. The educationist would not claim that the knowledge or skills attained through his system would either be of the same kind or degree as those attained under the rigid instruction system; nor would he wish it so. Acceptance of new and different standards of attainment may lead to the elimination of some of the unnecessary irrational processes which hamper modern life. He would claim, on principles analogous to those accepted as governing the growth of ideals, that only the skills and knowledge acquired through the satisfaction of educational needs are of real and permanent value, and he would urge observance of these principles as the first step towards the evolution of a method of education which would result in an educated, as distinct from merely a literate, community.

It is impossible to forecast the precise nature of the attainments which would be reached by a child leaving school under these conditions. He may not have covered the history of Britain in outline nor the

geography of the World: he may not have acquaintance with the Classics: he may not be able to punctuate correctly or to calculate in many matters of interest to the adult. In fundamentals, the attainments may be little different from those reached under the present system. It is difficult to say. It is certain that the achievements would represent an honest standard, and the educationist would claim that each child would leave school able and willing to continue his education with his vitality unimpaired and his abilities awakened.

What would the educationist hope to achieve as educating for citizenship, leisure, culture, vocation, health and so on? As an example, let us consider briefly education for citizenship. It is interesting to read the opinion of the Association for Education in Citizenship: "The fundamental problem in training for citizenship in a democratic state is how to help develop in every individual the motive force which will stir him to accept the responsibilities of active citizenship. If we fail in this moral problem no amount of intellectual training will in itself create good citizens. How then can we, by means of education, encourage those emotions, values or 'sentiments'—as the psychologist calls them—which the great majority of fellow citizens feel should form the basis of good social, as of good individual, relationships: the love of truth, the love of freedom—based on respect for the individuality of other persons—the desire to serve one's fellowmen?" (*Education for Citizenship in Secondary Schools.*)

The way of the educationist would appear to offer a complete solution to this problem. Although not unmindful of his responsibility for the intellectual development of the child, he views the whole business of education fundamentally as a process of emotional adjustment. As an intellectual preparation for the child's future responsibilities as a citizen, he would not endeavour to make each child leaving school proficient as a citizen either in his knowledge of affairs or of the nature and responsibilities of his duties, but it would be his hope to find each child leaving school intellectually alert, and therefore not only capable of understanding and carrying out his duties as a citizen when the time came, but also interested and discerning in those matters upon which he was called to exercise judgment. To return, however, to consider the fundamental problem of encouraging love of truth, freedom and service, we may, in this connection, recall the statement in the *Suggestions* that the ultimate test (of a school) must be whether it assists in the development of citizens who "desire the common good and are prepared to make sacrifices to secure and maintain it; men and women, that is, who care for all that is lovely and of good report" According to the principles accepted by the educationist, love of truth, freedom and service can be encouraged only through the practice of them. To talk of truth in conditions which do not engender it, or of freedom where freedom does not exist, or of service where there is no opportunity for its practice, is futile, or even positively harmful. Train-

ing *for* truth, freedom and service he would contend can be achieved only by a training *in* truth, freedom and service, and this, it would appear, is achieved through educational activities, such as have been described. These activities are based on freedom, they are honest in purpose and achievement, they are stimulated by, and they themselves in turn encourage, co-operation rather than competition.

The educationist hopes that the child thereby learning to recognise and appreciate the beauty of truth, freedom and service will accept them in his heart and practise them in his life. Thus he seeks to establish in each child the basis of all good social and individual relationships. This brief consideration of education for citizenship in the light of the principles discussed, as accepted as the basis of the educational aspect of the function of the school, encourages the thought that all the hopes of the educators for leisure, culture, vocation, health and the like may be achieved in emotional health.

The experiment led to a recognition of the threefold nature of the individual needs of the boys of the fourteen to fifteen group as seen in the physical, intellectual and emotional aspects of personality. It was contended that these needs are served through educational activities, a necessary condition for which was freedom

against a background of security. Further thought led to a distinction between the school as a place for instruction and as a place for education. In the light of these thoughts, the aims, principles and methods of the work of the school have been considered as we have examined the function of school from an 'instructional' and an 'educational' point of view. If we accept educational activities as the basis of all school work, we arrive at that conception of the function of school which had been described as "an educational conception" It is proposed to discuss in the next few pages some of the difficulties in the practice of this method of education.

There is no need in this essay to remind ourselves of the difficulties of the whole business of education, but it may be expedient to remember that school is not the only factor in the educative process. The starting-point is not at all within the control of the school and subsequent process is only partly within its control. School must accept the child as he is, his personality, a product of all the influences which in the course of his history have affected his growth, and still susceptible to the many influences outside school. The school in seeking to establish that condition of freedom and security in which educational activities may flourish cannot choose but recognise the force of these external influences. There are gaps to be bridged and links to be forged to the mutual benefit of the child and the school. On the one hand we may expect the child to achieve that balance which only a controlled environ-

ment can give, on the other hand the school will keep in touch with realities by which alone it can hope to attain its object. As one example of the beneficial influence of this contact with realities we may instance its value in presenting to the child the stimulus to acquire the fundamental skills and knowledge essential for contact with the life of the community. Such a thought may dispel the doubts of those who would fear that the child whose school experience is confined to educational activities would fail to reach, for lack of incentive, the standards of attainment in the common skills necessary for life within the community. It is difficult to imagine, for example, that any child living in a modern community would completely escape feeling the need for a knowledge of, and the skill to deal with, the common money system. The school in contact with realities will find this need evident in the child's educational activities and will prove then to be a timely and ready source of help, to the advantage of both child and school. Nor is the aim of the business of education entirely within the control of the school. It cannot afford to ignore, even if it could, the force of those standards of life, other than intellectual, which the child will meet when he leaves school, and to which he is even in the present subjected. In his own and the community's interests it may not be expedient that he should accept these standards as his own, but for his own protection, and again for the welfare of the community, he must recognise them. Socially, education should so fit him that he is neither

the gull nor the shark of society. Politically, in a democracy, he must learn to accept the conditions and authority of society and yet remain a dynamic member of it. No school is, therefore, free of external control. It must be cognisant of life in the community in which it functions. Not that, in accepting the terms of society, it must be limited by them. It must educate for society, and beyond it. "Education must produce the type and it must provide for growth beyond the type but if education does not produce the type first it can produce little else but airy wisps to be 'blown along a wandering wind'."[1] We have, in the conditions thus briefly considered, external controls to which every school is subject, raising issues that must be faced in planning its conditions of security and freedom, and in discharging its responsibilities to the child through his activities. Through official and unofficial controls, representing public opinion, every school is directly reminded of these forces. This direct control may be of less moment, but because it is direct, may be of greater influence than the force it represents. No school can choose to ignore such authority. As an organism it may thus find itself facing a situation analogous to that confronting the individual who accepts the authority of society yet remains a dynamic member of it; the school must accept authority and hope eventually to educate

[1] Quoted by Professor Clarke in *A Review of Educational Thought*, published in association with the University of London Institute of Education by Messrs. Evans Bros., Ltd., Russell Square, London.

it, if it is at variance with those ideals which the school is striving to attain. In so far as any school is responsible to public opinion and subject to public control, it will find difficulties in attempting to function for the service of educational needs in the manner we have described.

In common with the bolder spirits in all walks of life, the school which departs from convention must expect to find some difficulties. To follow the conventional way is always easy because it is the accepted way. In education it is no less easy to be conventional and there are many influences urging the school to be so; but if education is to be a living force it cannot be stabilised. Even the conventional way was evolved apparently from an idea arising from the pioneer work of those who first practised the system of class groupings for instruction as best serving the educational needs of the day. From this idea through thought and experience a system has been built up which is accepted and produces certain recognisable results. Any system built upon another idea will raise difficulties because it cannot produce the same kind of result; moreover, its methods, because the techniques have yet to be perfected through experience and trial, must bring many failures and disappointments. These difficulties, arising in the pursuit of a new practice of education, are not to be lightly regarded.

Thoughts of this kind are a warning. The conditions of school practice, based upon the principles of educational activities, require new techniques—new

techniques of organisation and teaching, which can be acquired only through experience. For this reason movement towards their practice must be slow and carefully planned. Enthusiasm for the ideals must not outstrip the capacity of the school to deal with the situation. Any attempt to make sweeping changes by a stroke of the pen should be discouraged. Either the change will be superficial and the old methods will be practised in a new setting or it will court disaster; either of which results would be harmful in their effects in the school, the children, and detrimental to the ideals on which they are based and inhibitive of their practice. Experiment is first necessary in conditions which are under control. Such an experiment has been the theme of this book. It has described an essay in school practice through an organisation making possible to a particular group some freedom in choice of time-tables. As described, the particular organisation is itself the result of a trying out of the idea in various details, from which trials, conditions suited to the particular circumstances of the school have been devised. The compulsory Mathematics and English periods, the 'double' periods, the privilege of changing the time-table at half-term, the basic time-table itself, are examples of conditions which have been changed or introduced during the period of experiment. It is still subject to change, as experience leads to a better grasp of the situation. Within the range of the opportunities afforded by this scheme, experiment in new teaching technique has gone for-

ward. A free group organisation such as this is not a device to make instruction easier or better; it demands a new conception of the business of teaching. An approach to this conception is seen through projects, conditions for which are facilitated by the free group organisation.

It should not, however, be assumed that the ideals we have described are to be attained merely by the introduction of free time-table conditions, or project methods. It is not suggested either that these are essential conditions for their attainment. Experience suggests that something of the kind is urgently required to meet the needs of the fourteen to fifteen group, peculiar in virtue of the particular characteristics of their stage of development and of their special conditions of attendance at school, but whether it is either desirable or practicable to extend such facilities to the whole school has yet to be seen. It certainly points to the necessity of re-examining the accepted conditions of organisation in school to discover whether they help or hinder the practice of our ideals. Time-tables and class groupings, originally devised as means of rationing resources of teaching staff, rooms, and equipment, threaten to dominate schools entirely. We are easily persuaded to think that the child comes to school in order to go through the time-table we have devised for him, or that the school exists in order that he shall go through the classes we have organised for him. There is nothing sacrosanct in classes and time-tables in themselves. Devised as they are to strike an

average, they may readily prove to be an arrangement through which no one gets what he wants, and in themselves they do much to keep alive the narrow instructional concept of education with all its limitations and weaknesses. As opportunity occurs, and as techniques of organisation are developed capable of dealing with the situation, these rationing devices of rigid groups and rigid allocations of the day should be discarded. The opportunity we have seen, because of the particular conditions of attendance, occurs with respect to one age group, with the functioning of the Education (1936) Act. The circumstances of decreasing numbers in school, as a result of the falling birth-rate, may soon provide opportunity for experiments in organisation with respect to other age groups, which do not depend solely upon rigidity either of time-tables or class groupings. Experience suggests that such experiments would wisely seek to retain something of the organisation found suitable for instruction while giving also some opportunity for greater freedom than this organisation allows. Such an arrangement commends itself as being under control, and one from which may ultimately be evolved a practicable scheme embodying the best features of both aspects of the function of the school. As an example, let us consider a Senior School organisation. Assuming that the average period of attendance of a boy in the Senior School to be eight or nine terms[1] (taking three terms

[1] Assuming that the ages of boys on entry to the school vary from 10 years 10 months to 11 years 10 months, then boys becoming exempt

a year) we might devise a school course having all the advantages which are claimed for a course system, for each of the three streams—for the ' A ' stream a seven-term course, for the ' B ' stream an eight-term course, for the ' C ' stream a nine-term course. As each stream finishes its course, the boys in that stream would move forward to constitute the free group, where conditions such as have been described would be found. An organisation such as this, or some variant of it, according to the peculiar circumstances of the school, would no doubt be found practicable. The staggered entry into the free group would roughly balance the number of leavers. As a result the group would remain fairly steady in number, making the conditions manageable and controllable as an experiment. As already stated, an organisation such as this retains in school those advantages that are claimed for a school course; by means of it the school can meet those responsibilities it owes to external controls; it retains the stimulus of the class system in the lower and middle school where it always appears to be effective (a stimulus which will be more and more wisely used as experience of the free group conditions in the school increasingly affects the whole outlook, as it is bound to do). Moreover, while

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at the end of the term in which they become 14 will have been in attendance in the Senior School for seven, eight, nine or ten terms, according to their age on entry.

In schools with a two-stream entry a convenient unit would perhaps be found taking seven or eight term courses from an average school life of eight terms.

affording opportunity for the necessary practice of the new techniques, both in organisation and teaching and by the boys themselves, this system does not get too far ahead of the immature techniques to be disastrous in its consequences. In this particular experiment, the break from the instructional system is restricted in its application as a system of organisation to one particular group in the opinion that not only will the needs of that group be thus best served, but also as affording opportunity for acquaintance with a new technique of education, ultimately to be given wider scope. The possibilities of the extension of these ideas to the whole school could be explored, it is suggested, through a scheme providing for sessions for house or team activities, sectionalised or grouped as convenient under the control of individual masters. The frequency and distribution of these sessions would be determined by the particular circumstances of the school. Such an arrangement would also afford an opportunity of examining the possibilities of vertical[1] groupings as units of education. In its experimental stage, again it is important that it should not outstrip the capacity to deal with the situation, if it is to move forward with

[1] We may regard the usual school organisation, which attempts to group together children of like age and ability as a horizontal classification, e.g.:

I, a.b.c. (boys 11–12 in "a", "b", "c" ability.)
II, a.b.c. (boys 12–13 in "a", "b", "c" ability,) etc.

A vertical organisation, taking a vertical section of the school, would include (in a senior school) children of ages 11 to 15 with ability *a* to *c*—definitely not an instructional group!

hope and without fear. Experience may show that it is possible ultimately to devise a scheme which allows some occasion for the meeting of groups built up on a horizontal basis for instruction and also for the meeting of vertical groups for wider activities, which in themselves will provide the stimulus for the instruction. Finally, on this matter of organisation, we would do well to remember that association with a group is necessary for the development of the individual. The satisfaction of individual needs on which the development of the individual is based, is not to be found in solitary work. The group system is not simply a school device, with no other value than it is a means of dealing with a large number of children. The group is an essential condition to education and it is a highly important part of the school's business to find satisfactory bases for educable groups.

During our discussion of educational activities we considered a few of the misconceptions of some of the terms associated with these activities, for example, 'freedom', 'interest', and the term 'activity' itself. There is similarly a common misunderstanding of the responsibility of the teacher in this method of school practice. There are certain forms of control which are normally exercised in schools and exerted through standardisation of curriculum, method, equipment, and attainment, which can have little force in a system based on the principle of educational activities. With the removal of these incentives and checks that arise from these controls, it may appear that neither schools

nor teachers have any responsibility for the work, conduct, or development of the children. This interpretation is wrong. As we saw, the function of the school is not merely to remove influences which hamper growth, but to provide nourishment and sustenance for growth. Nevertheless, an immediate reaction to the removal of the control of a rigid system, may well engender in both teachers and children, a *laissez faire* attitude which funks all difficulties, makes no effort, and accomplishes nothing. The attitude that nothing matters is entirely false to the system, but is indeed so harmful to it and to the welfare of both teachers and children, that the possibility of its eventuality cannot be overlooked. In this case, one appears to be faced with the alternative of a system which will result in an output of uneconomical effort misdirected to an apparent efficiency in results of sham value, or a system which is flagrantly flabby, both equally bad alternatives. Actually the responsibilities of teacher and school are increased in the condition we have described. The responsibility of the production of a tangible result which can be assessed according to school standards as a piece of work becomes that of the development of a human being. In one case the teacher is concerned with the use of standardised means and methods to produce a standardised result for the value and worth of which he assumes no responsibility; in the other he is concerned with devising methods and means to follow the lead of the child, helping activities as they lead continuously from " the

irresponsible frolic of childhood to the disciplined labour of manhood ".[1] This implies a new technique in teaching. It is not the same technique already known and employed as individual methods in teaching. It is a technique which will use and preserve the spirit and adventure of the activity itself. It will not concentrate itself on the acquisition of skills for a game which is never played. They will be acquired in the game itself. We might continue to pursue the game analogy, and reflect on an academic approach to football through a logical course, involving lessons, notes, diagrams, written exercises, problems, calculations and examination (written); the 'advanced' academician might add a graded course of practical work on kicking, heading, throwing, passing, tackling. All this would be carried out on the assumption that at the end of the course, no doubt armed with a proficiency certificate, the boy would be able to play. Only a few would reach this stage, and of these (if we may take other academic subjects as a guide) very few would wish to pursue it further. This absurd analogy seems to be uncomfortably like the instruction methods of teaching as we apply them to many subjects. In the teaching technique associated with educational activities, the child learns the skills and acquires the knowledge as he plays, and he ends the 'course' still playing but still learning and anxious to seek help. It is an entirely new technique which will follow and use the child's needs and which will find

[1] *Education*, T. P. Nunn.

in a natural process the stimulus for drill and practice. If one may make deductions from the apparent ready facility with which the slowest 'C' boy understands the intricacies of the football-pool coupon system, market-place arithmetic, and such like, the acquirement of skills and knowledge would seem to depend much less upon drills and practice than we are accustomed to think, and that this kind of exercise will look after itself as we perfect the technique of dealing with the child's needs. This idea is in accordance with the conclusions of the whole experiment.

Perfection of the new technique will find the rightful place in education for courses and examinations. The evidence provided by the experiment shows that courses in themselves can be of very great value, both to the school as an environment responsible for the direction of effort, and to the individual boy seeking help and guidance in his interests. The boy interested in steam engines is not receiving his due at the hands of the school which simply leaves him to his own devices in a Science room. A steam-engine course will give him access to the use of models, pictures, diagrams, books of reference, materials, tools, provide him with the opportunity of seeing steam engines in action, and put him into touch with the source of materials outside school which will call upon his powers of resource in using them to his purpose. It is thus that a master, by virtue of his wide knowledge of steam engines, may devise a course on a psychological basis, which is not imposed on the boy but

serves his needs. This is an illustration of a course being made to fit the child—an ideal to which the educationist would aspire in the use of the course in school practice. He would not desire the abolition of all courses as being inherently opposed to his conception of the function of the school, but he would urge that each course, whether devised for a group or an individual child, should be judged on its merits as it fits the needs of those whom it should serve. Examinations will assume their rightful place in the function of the school as we realise their limitations, not only with regard to their competence to measure, but also with regard to the nature of the qualities they can assess. Those aspects of life, such as feelings and sentiments, which the educationist considers to be of vital importance, can never be measured in this way. More than anything else, it is probably the attempted use of examinations as a measurer which stands in the way of the wise use of the course. The problem of the use of one will be solved as we understand the use of the other. The process of solving the problem will, it is hoped, also lead to the reconsideration of the value of examination lists and reports. The school report, while it should and can afford a means of co-operation between school and home, the value of which is great, can be a form of cruelty against which each child and his parents should be protected. It is difficult to imagine anything more cruel than a system which tells a parent twice a year throughout the whole of his son's school life, that his son is a fool, or to imagine

anything more harmful to the child's welfare. Many homes protect themselves by refusing to take the report seriously, and some schools, realising this, issue the reports as a matter of form—a process which seems to be a waste of time; or other schools, conscious of the evils of the system, are deliberately evasive, and thus defeat the purpose reports might serve. If, in fact, the school as a place of education is serving educational needs, and if the consequent development of the child, such as can be estimated, is recorded on his report, then as a link between home and school, the report may be a valuable aid in the process of education. If not, then the issue of a report would appear to be purely formal or farcical or cruel. Problems such as these, which have arisen out of our brief consideration of the value of courses, examinations, and reports, will be solved as the new techniques we have discussed are perfected.

As the new techniques are practised there will be required greater freedom of accommodation than is to be found in classrooms equipped with desks and the apparatus for formal instruction in academic studies. As long as instruction is found to be a necessary process in school work, such rooms will be required as perfectly fitting the purpose, but they are too rigid to lend themselves conveniently to the purpose of group educational activities (although educational activity is not precluded from any kind of room). Already the normal Senior School has rooms and outdoor space (or should have) designed and

equipped as to be readily available for educational activities. Other rooms may be found to be more fitting the purpose if rigid furniture were replaced by a type of collapsible chair and table which are more flexible to meet the needs of particular circumstances. This, however, demands that there should be a more generous floor-space unit per child than is usually available in classrooms, a condition which, in existing buildings, will follow automatically on the recognition of class units less than those for which the rooms were originally designed, and which should be recognised in new buildings. Details of equipment would depend upon the needs of the particular school, but recent progress points to the desirability of making provision in all schools for the use of wireless and films as being valuable aids in education.

This thesis records an attempt to discover facts and to face them honestly. The writer, as a practising schoolmaster, is fully aware of the difficulties raised by the conclusions reached. Can these conclusions be refuted? If they can, then it will be with no small relief that he returns to attempt to make his contribution towards the improvement of the system already so well established and practised in schools, and he knows that in his feelings of relief he will have the sympathy of all his professional colleagues. If they

cannot, then schools must find in their present opportunities and in those conditions urged by the teaching profession and all others with the best interests of the children at heart, not the occasion for practising the business of education more efficiently in the old way but for practising it in a different way.